A ſhort ACCOUNT *of the* LIFE *and* CHARACTER *of Dr.* HUGH BLAIR.

[By Dr. James Finlayſon.]

In our Biographical Regiſter *of eminent Perſons deceaſed in* 1800, *Dr.* Blair *was of Courſe included. Several of our Readers having ſince expreſſed a Deſire to have a Portrait of that celebrated Author, we now preſent them with one, accompanied with the following Account, which is prefixed to the Fifth Volume of his* Sermons, *publiſhed ſome Time after the Doctor's Death.*

DR. Hugh Blair was born in Edinburgh, on the 7th day of April 1718. His father, John Blair, a reſpectable merchant in that city, was a deſcendant of the ancient family of Blair, in Ayrſhire, and grandſon of the famous Mr. Robert Blair, miniſter of St. Andrew's, chaplain to Charles 1, and one of the moſt zealous and diſtinguiſhed clergymen of the period in which he lived. This worthy man, though firmly attached to the cauſe of freedom and to the preſbyterian form of church government; and though actively engaged in all the meaſures adopted for their ſupport; yet by his ſteady, temperate conduct, commanded the reſpect even of his opponents. In preference to all the other eccleſiaſtical leaders of the covenanting party, he was ſelected by the king himſelf to fill an office which, from the circumſtances of the time, gave frequent acceſs to the royal perſon; 'becauſe,' ſaid his majeſty, 'that man is pious, prudent, learned, and of a meek and moderate calm temper.' His talents ſeem to have deſcended as an inheritance to his poſterity. For, of the two ſons who ſurvived him, David, the eldeſt, was a clergyman of eminence in Edinburgh, father to Mr. Robert Blair, miniſter of Athelſtonford, the celebrated author of the poem entitled 'The Grave;' and grandfather to his majeſty's ſolicitor-general for Scotland, whoſe maſculine eloquence and profound knowledge of law have, in the public eſtimation, placed him indiſputably at the head of the Scottiſh bar. From his youngeſt ſon Hugh, who engaged in buſineſs as a merchant, and had the honour to fill a high ſtation in the magiſtracy of Edinburgh, ſprung the learned clergyman who is the ſubject of this narrative.

The views of Dr. Blair, from his earlieſt youth, were turned toward the church, and his education received a ſuitable direction. After the uſual grammatical courſe at ſchool, he entered the Humanity Claſs in the univerſity of Edinburgh, in October 1730, and ſpent eleven years at that celebrated ſeminary, aſſiduouſly employed in the literary and ſcientific ſtudies preſcribed by the church of Scotland to all who are to become candidates for her licence to preach the goſpel. During this important period he was diſtinguiſhed among his companions both for diligence and proficiency; and obtained from the profeſſors under whom he ſtudied repeated teſtimonies of approbation. One of them deſerves to be mentioned particularly, becauſe in his own opinion it determined the bent of his genius toward polite literature. An eſſay, Περιτου καλου, *On the Beautiful*, written by him when a ſtudent of logic in the uſual courſe of academical exerciſes, had the good fortune to attract the notice of profeſſor Stevenſon, and, with circumſtances honourable to the author, was appointed to be read in public at the concluſion of the ſeſſion. This mark of diſtinction made a deep impreſſion on his mind; and the eſſay which merited it he ever after recollected with partial affection, and preſerved to the day of his death as the firſt earneſt of his fame.

At this time Dr. Blair commenced a method of ſtudy which contributed much to the accuracy and extent of his knowledge, and which he con-

tinued to practiſe occaſionally even after his reputation was fully eſtabliſhed. It conſiſted in making abſtracts of the moſt important works which he read, and in digeſting them according to the train of his own thoughts. Hiſtory, in particular, he reſolved to ſtudy in this manner; and, in concert with ſome of his youthful aſſociates, he conſtructed a very comprehenſive ſcheme of chronological tables for receiving into its proper place every important fact that ſhould occur. The ſcheme deviſed by this young ſtudent for his own private uſe was afterward improved, filled up, and given to the public by his learned friend Dr. John Blair, prebendary of Weſtminſter, in his valuable work, 'Chronology and Hiſtory of the World.'

In the year 1739, Dr. Blair took his degree of A. M. On that occaſion he printed and defended a theſis *De Fundamentis et Obligatione Legis Naturæ*, which contains a ſhort but maſterly diſcuſſion of this important ſubject, and exhibits in elegant Latin an outline of the moral principles, which have been ſince more fully unfolded and illuſtrated in his Sermons.

The univerſity of Edinburgh, about this period, numbered among her pupils many young men who were ſoon to make a diſtinguiſhed figure in the civil, the eccleſiaſtical, and the literary hiſtory of their country. With moſt of them Dr. Blair entered into habits of intimate connexion, which no future competition or jealouſy occurred to interrupt, which held them united through life in their views of public good, and which had the moſt beneficial influence on their own improvement, on the progreſs of elegance and taſte among their cotemporaries, and on the general intereſts of the community to which they belonged.

On the completion of his academical courſe, he underwent the cuſtomary trials before the Preſbytery of Edinburgh, and received from that venerable body a licence to preach the goſpel on the 21ſt of October 1741. His public life now commenced with very favourable proſpects. The reputation which he brought from the univerſity was fully juſtified by his firſt appearance in the pulpit; and, in a few months, the fame of his eloquence procured for him a preſentation to the pariſh of Coleſſie in Fife, where he was ordained to the office of the holy miniſtry on the 23d of September 1742. But he was not permitted to remain long in this rural retreat. A vacancy in the ſecond charge of the canongate of Edinburgh furniſhed to his friends an opportunity of recalling him to a ſtation more ſuited to his talents. And, though one of the moſt popular and eloquent clergymen in the church was placed in competition with him, a great majority of the electors decided in favour of this young orator, and reſtored him in July 1743, to the bounds of his native city.

In this ſtation Dr. Blair continued eleven years, diſcharging with great fidelity and ſucceſs the various duties of the paſtoral office. His diſcourſes from the pulpit in particular attracted univerſal admiration. They were compoſed with uncommon care; and, occupying a middle place between the dry metaphyſical diſcuſſion of one claſs of preachers, and the looſe incoherent declamation of another, they blended together, in the happieſt manner, the light of argument with the warmth of exhortation, and exhibited captivating ſpecimens of what had hitherto been rarely heard in Scotland—the poliſhed, well compacted, and regular didactic oration.

In conſequence of a call from the town-council and general ſeſſion of Edinburgh, he was tranſlated from the canongate to lady Yeſter's, one of the city churches, on the 11th of October 1754: and on the 15th of June 1758, he was promoted to the high church of Edinburgh, the moſt important eccleſiaſtical charge in the kingdom. To this charge he was raiſed at the requeſt of the lords of council and ſeſſion, and of the other diſtinguiſhed official characters who

have their ſeats in that church. And the uniform prudence, ability, and ſucceſs which, for a period of more than forty years, accompanied all his miniſterial labours in that conſpicuous and difficult ſtation, ſufficiently evince the wiſdom of their choice.

Hitherto his attention ſeems to have been devoted almoſt excluſively to the attainment of profeſſional excellence, and to the regular diſcharge of his parochial duties. No production of his pen had yet been given to the world by himſelf, except two ſermons preached on particular occaſions, ſome tranſlations in verſe of paſſages of ſcripture for the pſalmody of the church, and a few articles in the Edinburgh Review—a publication begun in 1755, and conducted for a ſhort time by ſome of the ableſt men in the kingdom. But ſtanding as he now did at the head of his profeſſion, and releaſed by the labour of former years from the drudgery of weekly preparation for the pulpit, he began to think ſeriouſly on a plan for teaching to others that art which had contributed ſo much to the eſtabliſhment of his own fame. With this view, he communicated to his friends a ſcheme of Lectures on Compoſition; and having obtained the approbation of the univerſity, he began to read them in the college on the 11th of December 1759. To this undertaking he brought all the qualifications requiſite for executing it well; and along with them a weight of reputation which could not fail to give effect to the leſſons he ſhould deliver. For beſide the teſtimony given to his talents by his ſucceſſive promotions in the church, the univerſity of St. Andrew's, moved chiefly by the merit of his eloquence, had in June 1757, conferred on him the degree of D. D. a literary honour which at that time was very rare in Scotland. Accordingly his firſt courſe of lectures was well attended, and received with great applauſe. The patrons of the univerſity, convinced that they would form a valuable addition to the ſyſtem of education, agreed in the following ſummer to inſtitute a rhetorical claſs, under his direction, as a permanent part of their academical eſtabliſhment: and on the 7th of April 1762, his majeſty was graciouſly pleaſed 'To erect and endow a Profeſſorſhip of Rhetoric and Belles Lettres in the univerſity of Edinburgh, and to appoint Dr. Blair in conſideration of his approved qualifications, Regius Profeſſor thereof, with a ſalary of 70l.' Theſe Lectures he publiſhed in 1783, when he retired from the labours of the office; and the general voice of the public has pronounced them to be a moſt judicious, elegant, and comprehenſive ſyſtem of rules for forming the ſtyle and cultivating the taſte of youth.

About the time in which he was occupied in laying the foundations of this uſeful inſtitution he had an opportunity of conferring another important obligation on the literary world, by the part which he acted in reſcuing from oblivion the poems of Oſſian. It was by the ſolicitation of Dr. Blair and Mr. John Home that Mr. Macpherſon was induced to publiſh his *Fragments of Ancient Poetry*; and their patronage was of eſſential ſervice in procuring the ſubſcription which enabled him to undertake his tour through the Highlands, for collecting the materials of Fingal, and of thoſe other delightful productions which bear the name of Oſſian. To theſe productions Dr. Blair applied the teſt of genuine criticiſm; and ſoon after their publication gave an eſtimate of their merits in *a Diſſertation*, which for beauty of language, delicacy of taſte, and acuteneſs of critical inveſtigation, has few parallels. It was printed in 1763, and ſpread the reputation of its author throughout Europe.

The great objects of his literary ambition being now attained, his talents were for many years conſecrated ſolely to the important and peculiar employments of his ſtation. It was not till the year 1777, that he could be induced to favour the world with a

volume of the Sermons which had ſo long furniſhed inſtruction and delight to his own congregation. But this volume being well received, the public approbation encouraged him to proceed: three other volumes followed at different intervals; and all of them experienced a degree of ſucceſs of which few publications can boaſt. They circulated rapidly and widely wherever the Engliſh tongue extends; they were ſoon tranſlated into almoſt all the languages of Europe; and his preſent majeſty, with that wiſe attention to the intereſts of religion and literature which diſtinguiſhes his reign, was graciouſly pleaſed to judge them worthy of a public reward. By a royal mandate to the exchequer in Scotland, dated the 25th of July 1780, a penſion of 200l a year was conferred on their author, which continued unaltered till his death.

The motives which gave riſe to the preſent volume are ſufficiently explained by himſelf in his addreſs to the reader. The ſermons which it contains were compoſed at very different periods of his life; but they were all written out anew in his own hand, and in many parts recompoſed, during the courſe of laſt ſummer, after he had completed his eighty-ſecond year. They were delivered to the publiſhers about ſix weeks before his death in the form and order in which they now appear. And it may gratify his readers to know that the laſt of them which he compoſed, though not the laſt in the order adopted for publication, was the ſermon on *a Life of Diſſipation and Pleaſure*—a ſermon written with great dignity and eloquence, and which ſhould be regarded as his ſolemn parting admonition to a claſs of men whoſe conduct is highly important to the community, and whoſe reformation and virtue he had long laboured moſt zealouſly to promote.

The ſermons which he has given to the world are univerſally admitted to be models in their kind; and they will long remain durable monuments of the piety, the genius, and ſound judgment of their author. But they formed only a ſmall part of the diſcourſes he prepared for the pulpit. The remainder modeſty led him to think unfit for the preſs; and, influenced by an excuſable ſolicitude for his reputation, he left behind him an explicit injunction that his numerous manuſcripts ſhould be deſtroyed. The greatneſs of their number was creditable to his profeſſional character, and exhibited a convincing proof that his fame as a public teacher had been honourably purchaſed by the moſt unwearied application to the private and unſeen labours of his office. It reſted on the uniform intrinſic excellence of his diſcourſes in point of matter and compoſition, rather than on foreign attractions; for his delivery, though diſtinct, ſerious, and impreſſive, was not remarkably diſtinguiſhed by that magic charm of voice and action which captivates the ſenſes and imagination, and which, in the eſtimation of ſuperficial hearers, conſtitutes the chief merit of a preacher.

In that department of his profeſſional duty, which regarded the government of the church, Dr. Blair was ſteadily attached to the cauſe of moderation. From diffidence, and perhaps from a certain degree of inaptitude for extemporary ſpeaking, he took a leſs public part in the conteſts of eccleſiaſtical politics than ſome of his cotemporaries; and, from the ſame cauſes, he never would conſent to become moderator of the general aſſembly of the church of Scotland. But his influence among his brethren was extenſive: his opinion, guided by that ſound uprightneſs of judgment which formed the predominant feature of his intellectual character, had been always held in high reſpect by the friends with whom he acted, and for many of the laſt years of his life it was received by them almoſt as a law. The great leading principle in which they cordially concurred with him, and which directed all their meaſures, was to preſerve the church on the one ſide from

a ſlaviſh corrupting dependence on the civil power, and on the other from a greater infuſion of democratical influence than is compatible with good order and the eſtabliſhed conſtitution of the country.

The reputation which he acquired in the diſcharge of his public duties was well ſuſtained by the great reſpectability of his private character. Deriving from family aſſociations a ſtrong ſenſe of clerical decorum, feeling on his heart deep impreſſions of religious and moral obligation, and guided in his intercourſe in the world by the ſame correct and delicate taſte which appeared in his writings, he was eminently diſtinguiſhed through life by the prudence, purity, and dignified propriety of his conduct. His mind, by conſtitution and culture, was admirably formed for enjoying happineſs:—well balanced in itſelf by the nice proportion and adjuſtment of its faculties, it did not incline him to any of thoſe eccentricities, either of opinion or of action, which are too often the lot of genius; free from all tincture of envy, it delighted cordially in the proſperity and fame of his companions; ſenſible to the eſtimation in which he himſelf was held, it diſpoſed him to dwell at times on the thought of his ſucceſs with a ſatisfaction which he did not affect to conceal; inacceſſible alike to gloomy and to peeviſh impreſſions, it was always maſter of its own movements, and ready, in an uncommon degree, to take an active and pleaſing intereſt in every thing, whether important or trifling, that happened to become for the moment the object of his attention. This habit of mind, tempered with the moſt unſuſpecting ſimplicity, and united to eminent talents and inflexible integrity, while it ſecured to the laſt his own reliſh of life, was wonderfully calculated to endear him to his friends, and to render him an invaluable member of any ſociety to which he belonged. Accordingly there have been few men more univerſally reſpected by thoſe who knew him, more ſincerely eſteemed in the circle of his acquaintance, or more tenderly beloved by thoſe who enjoy the bleſſings of his private and domeſtic connexion.

In April 1748, he married his couſin Catharine Bannatine, daughter of the rev. James Bannatine, one of the miniſters of Edinburgh. By her he had a ſon who died in infancy, and a daughter who lived to her twenty-firſt year, the pride of her parents, and adorned with all the accompliſhments that became her age and ſex. Mrs. Blair herſelf, a woman of great good ſenſe and ſpirit, was alſo taken from him a few years before his death, after ſhe had ſhared with the tendereſt affection in all his fortunes, and contributed near half a century to his happineſs and comfort.

Dr. Blair had been naturally of a feeble conſtitution of body; but as he grew up his conſtitution acquired greater firmneſs and vigour. Though liable to occaſional attacks from ſome of the ſharpeſt and moſt painful diſeaſes that afflict the human frame, he enjoyed a general ſtate of good health; and, through habitual cheerfulneſs, temperance, and care, ſurvived the uſual term of human life.—For ſome years he had felt himſelf unequal to the fatigue of inſtructing his very large congregation from the pulpit; and, under the impreſſion which this feeling produced, he has been heard at times to ſay, with a ſigh, 'that he was left almoſt the laſt of his cotemporaries.' Yet he continued to the end in the regular diſcharge of all his other official duties, and particularly in giving advice to the afflicted, who from different quarters of the kingdom ſolicited his correſpondence. His laſt ſummer was devoted to the preparation of this volume of Sermons; and in the courſe of it he exhibited a vigour of underſtanding and capacity of exertion equal to that of his beſt days. He began the winter pleaſed with himſelf on account of the completion of this work; and his friends were flattered with the hope that he

might live to enjoy the acceſſion of emolument and fame which he expected it would bring. But the ſeeds of a mortal diſeaſe were lurking unperceived within him. On the 24th of December 1800, he complained of a pain in his bowels, which, during that and the following day, gave him but little uneaſineſs; and he received as uſual the viſits of his friends. On the afternoon of the 26th, the ſymptoms became violent and alarming:—he felt that he was approaching the end of his appointed courſe: and retaining to the laſt moment the full poſſeſſion of his mental faculties, he expired on the morning of the 27th, with the compoſure and hope which became a Chriſtian paſtor.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE ISLAND OF CEYLON.

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COLUMBO, the Britiſh capital of Ceylon, and the ſeat of government, is a place of very conſiderable extent. Although Trincomale, on account of its ſituation and harbour, be of more conſequence to this nation to retain, yet Columbo in every other reſpect is greatly ſuperior. The number of its inhabitants is much greater; its fort and black town are much larger; the country where it is ſituate far more fertile, and the rich diſtrict depending upon it much wider, being not leſs than twenty leagues in length, and ten in breadth. It is ſituate on the weſt coaſt, toward the ſouth part of the iſland, in lat. 7° 4′ north, and lon. 79° 49′ eaſt.

The fort is placed on a peninſula, expoſed on all ſides to the ſeabreezes, by which means the air is rendered temperate and healthy, though ſo very near the equator. It is upward of a mile in circumference, and in a great meaſure indebted to nature for its ſtrength; though it is alſo tolerably well fortified by art. The ramparts are very ſtrong, having ten principal baſtions, beſide a number of leſſer ones, with curtains, banquets, and parapets, communicating with each other all around the fort; and the whole is ſurrounded by a broad and deep wet ditch, over which drawbridges are thrown at each of the three gates.

Adjoining to the covert way, and at the foot of the glacis, is a lake in ſome parts extending three or four miles into the country in a northeaſt direction. For near a mile on the outſide of the fort, the neck of land (which connects it with the country) is not above five or ſix hundred yards broad; and in the middle of this ſpace lies part of the lake, leaving only room on each ſide for a narrow cauſeway. In the centre of the lake is an iſland, communicating with a ſally-port on the eaſt face, by a narrow cauſeway and drawbridges.

The plan of Columbo is regular. It is nearly divided into four equal quarters by two principal ſtreets, which croſs each other, and extend the whole length of the town. To theſe, ſmaller ones run parallel, with connecting lanes between them. It is built more in the European ſtyle, if ſuch an analogy can at all be drawn, than any other garriſon in India. The Dutch houſes are all regular, though few of them are above one ſtory high, and they are covered with indented tiles. An Engliſhman is ſurpriſed to find all the windows here having glaſs-panes after the European manner; as in our other Indian ſettlements, Venetian blinds and ſhutters are chiefly uſed. Before each houſe, and connected with it, is a large open ſpace roofed in and ſupported on pillars of wood. It is called a viranda, and is intended to afford a ſhade from the ſun, and an opportunity of enjoying any refreſhing breeze that ſprings up from the ſea. In addition to this refuge from the ſultry rays, the houſes

are agreeably ſhaded by a double row of thick ſpreading trees, planted on each ſide of the ſeveral ſtreets. Theſe take off from the dazzling and ſultry glare reflected by the walls, which are all plaiſtered over and white-waſhed.

The harbour of Columbo, which lies on the weſt ſide, is nothing more than an open road, affording good and ſafe anchorage to ſhips for only four months of the year, from December to April. During this period the northweſt winds, to which this road is much expoſed, do not prevail to any violent degree; and ſhips from different parts of India put in here to trade. But about May, when the monſoon ſets in on the Malabar coaſt, and extends its ravages to the weſt coaſt of Ceylon, the roads of Columbo no longer afford any protection. Columbo is by this means cut off from any intercourſe by ſea with the reſt of the iſland, for two thirds of the year. As this is the chief place for the ſtaple trade of Ceylon, the diſadvantages ariſing from theſe circumſtances are very conſiderable.

To every fort in India is attached on the outſide of the walls, a town or village, called in the language of the natives the *pettah*, and by us the *black town*, from its being chiefly inhabited by black merchants and tradeſpeople. The ſhops, bazars, and ſtalls placed all along the ſtreets, are repleniſhed with various articles of merchandiſe, peculiarly in uſe among the natives of India; and the town, during the whole day, ſwarms with people of all deſcriptions.

Columbo taken all together is, for its ſize, one of the moſt populous places in India. There is no part of the world where ſo many different languages are ſpoken, or which contains ſuch a mixture of nations, manners, and religions. Beſide Europeans, and Cingleſe, the proper natives of the iſland, there are ſcattered all over the town almoſt every race of Aſiatics: alſo a number of Africans, Cafrees, Buganeſe, a mixed race of Africans and Aſiatics; beſide the half-caſts, people of colour, and other races which proceed from a mixture of the original ones. Each of theſe different claſſes of people has its own manners, cuſtoms, and language. The language ſpoken moſt univerſally both by the Europeans and Aſiatics who reſort to Columbo, is the Portugueſe of India, a baſe, corrupt dialect, altogether different from that ſpoken in Portugal. It may indeed be conſidered as a barbarous compound of a number of Indian languages combined with ſeveral European, among which the French is very diſtinguiſhable.

Notwithſtanding the difficulty of acceſs to Columbo, and its total want of a ſecure harbour for large veſſels, ſtill the richneſs of the diſtrict where it is ſituate, and the variety of articles which it affords to commerce, render it a place of very conſiderable trade. It is much frequented on this account both by Europeans and the natives of the different coaſts of India; and the duty of five per cent. on imports and exports bring a revenue of ſome conſequence to government. The articles exported hence are cinnamon and pepper (the ſtaple ſpices of the iſland) arrack, and coya-rope, or cordage, alſo a number of inferior articles, as betel-leaf, areka nut, jaggery (a ſort of coarſe blackiſh ſugar) cocoa-nuts and oil, honey, bees-wax, cardamons, coral, ivory, fruit, &c. The principal imports are rice, coarſe cotton cloths and calicos, printed cloths for women, coarſe muſlins, handkerchiefs, palampos, ſtockings, tin, and copper; and yearly, about February, a Portugueſe or Chineſe ſhip arrives from Macao with teas, ſugar, candied ſweetmeats, hams, ſilks, velvets, nankeens, umbrellas, ſtraw-hats, all kinds of china-ware and toys; which articles meet with a very ſpeedy ſale, and are generally paid in hard-money.

The current coin here, as well as in the reſt of the European dominions on the iſland, ſince the arrival of the Engliſh, conſiſts of double and ſingle pice and half-pice, made by our Eaſt India company. A pice is about a

halfpenny ſterling; four pice go to a fanam, and twelve fanams to a rix-dollar, or, as it is uſually called by our people, a copper rupee. This latter coin goes for about two ſhillings ſterling; and four of them are equivalent to a ſtar pagoda, a Madras gold coin worth eight ſhillings ſterling.

The expence of living at Columbo is much more conſiderable than might be expected. Every thing in Ceylon is in general indeed dearer than on the continent of India, whence moſt of the articles in uſe are imported. Horſes and ſervants are particularly expenſive. To keep one horſe at Columbo will coſt as much as to keep two at Madras; and ſervants' wages are alſo nearly double. Vegetables and other proviſions that were formerly in the greateſt abundance have become equally ſcarce and dear; but ſuch articles as are the native produce of the iſland, are found in great abundance and at a moderate price. Beef, fiſh, and fowl in particular, are both cheap and plentiful. Mutton is exceſſively dear, as no ſheep can be reared in the neighbourhood of Columbo; but pigs are reared in great abundance. Ducks are rather cheap, and in plenty; but geeſe are rare, and turkeys not to be had, except a few imported occaſionally by ſhips coming from other parts of India.

Galkieſt—Pantura.

Proceeding ſouthward from Columbo, on a road ſheltered by groves of cocoa-trees for ſix miles, we arrive at the village of Galkieſt; and thence to Pantura, a diſtance of twelve miles, the road is well ſhaded by cinnamon gardens. Pantura is ſeated at the mouth of a river, and here are barracks for troops to reſt in occaſionally on their route from Columbo to Point de Galle. From Pantura to Caltura, a diſtance of ten miles, the whole country may be conſidered as one delightful grove, and the road as a broad walk through a ſhady garden.

Caltura.

The fort and town of Caltura is twenty-eight miles S by E of Columbo, in lat. 6 44 N and lon. 79 56 W. It ſtands at the mouth of one of the largeſt branches of the Muliwaddy, which waſhes two ſides of the eminence on which the fort is ſituate.

Certain native manufactures are carried on to a conſiderable extent around Caltura. A great quantity of arrack in particular is made from the groves of cocoa-trees, which extend ſeveral miles in every direction. There is alſo a large plantation of ſugar canes here, and a diſtillery of rum carried on by ſome Dutchmen.

Barbareen—Bentot.

Six miles onward from Caltura is Barbareen, a ſmall village, with a ſort of harbour formed by a projection of land where the river runs into the ſea. This is almoſt the only place where the high ſurf and rocky ſhore on this coaſt permits ſhip-boats of the European conſtruction to land. Here is a manufacture of cordage and cables from the cocoa-tree; and large quantities are ſent to Columbo and Point de Galle, to ſupply the veſſels which trade to theſe ports. A few miles further is Bentot, only remarkable for producing the beſt oyſters on the iſland.

Point de Galle.

In point of importance, Point de Galle is conſidered as the third town on the iſland, and is ſituate on the ſouthcoaſt, eighty-five miles S by E of Columbo in lat. 6 0 N, lon. 80 10 E. The fort is pretty ſtrong, and has ſeveral works attached to it. The outer road is ſpacious; and the inner harbour is ſecure during a great part of the year. The pettah is extenſive, and the houſes both there and in the fort, are ſuperior to thoſe of Trincomale. The whole town is populous, and in point of trade ranks next to Columbo. Fiſheries to a very conſiderable extent are carried on here, and indeed form the chief branch of

its traffic. A vaſt number of Malays and natives, are employed in catching, curing, and drying the fiſh to prepare it for exportation to different parts of the continent of India. Arrack, oil, pepper, cotton, and cardamoms, alſo form a part of its exports. Cinnamon is alſo grown here, but not in ſuch quantity as about Columbo: in quality, it is much the ſame. One of the India ſhips touches here annually, either before or after ſhe has taken in part of her cargo at Columbo, to carry off what cinnamon is prepared for exportation.

Matura.

Twenty-five miles onward ESE from Point de Galle, is Matura, ſituate on a river, nearly at the ſouthmoſt point of Ceylon, in lat. 5 53 N, lon. 80 28 E. The fort and village are both ſmall; the country round is exceeding wild, but well ſupplied with proviſions of all ſorts; and game is found here in great abundance. Elephants alſo abound; and it is here they are principally caught for exportation. Every three or four years the elephant is hunted here, by order of government. In 1797, at one of theſe hunts, a hundred and ſeventy-ſix were caught, the greateſt number ever remembered to have been taken at one time.

Owing to the nature of the country to the E and NE of Matura, no other European ſettlement occurs till we come to Batacolo at the diſtance of 180 miles. The country which lies between theſe two places, preſents the wildeſt appearance. Few of the Cingleſe have the intrepidity to inhabit thoſe parts, where they are in conſtant danger of being attacked by the numerous deſcriptions of wild beaſts, by which this quarter is ſo much infeſted. Thoſe who are obliged by buſineſs to go from Columbo to Batacolo, prefer going by ſea; or, if the ſeaſon be unfavorable, they rather take the circuitous route by the weſt and northweſt coaſt of the iſland, than proceed by this wild and unfrequented tract; where, beſide the danger ariſing from elephants, buffalos, and other wild beaſts, they run a continual riſk of falling in with the ſavage Bedahs, who inhabit the woods.

Batacolo.

The part of Batacolo is ſituate on the eaſtcoaſt of Ceylon, ſixty-five miles S by E of Trincomale, in lat. 7 44 N, lon. 81 50 W. It has little or no connexion with the ſouth and weſt parts of the iſland; and is indeed, in every view, a place of no great importance. Its harbour only admits of ſmall craft; and the place itſelf conſiſts of a trifling fort, with a village where a few Dutch families reſide. The ſurrounding country is very romantic; and the view of the iſland from the ſea off Batacolo, is particularly ſtriking. The ſhore is uncommonly bold; and many of the immenſe rocks which riſe on it have attracted notice, and acquired names from the groteſque figures they repreſent.

Trincomale.

The town of Trincomale, deemed next in importance to Columbo, is ſituate on the NE coaſt in lat 8 32 N, lon. 81 25 E. It runs in a NE direction along one branch of the bay, and from its ſituation and conſtruction is naturally ſtrong. The country around it is mountainous and woody; the ſoil uncultivated and rather barren, and the whole appearance wild. The woods, which are very thick, contain abundance of wild beaſts of various deſcriptions; particularly, wild hogs, buffalos, and elephants. The latter often come down to the lakes in the neighbourhood of the fort, to drink and bathe; they have been often ſhot within a mile of the town.

Trincomale occupies more ground than Columbo, but contains a much ſmaller number of houſes, and thoſe inferior in ſize and appearance to thoſe which are to be met with in ſeveral towns on the weſt coaſt. The circumference of Trincomale, within the walls, is about three miles: within

this ſpace is alſo included a hill or riſing point, immediately over the ſea, and covered with a great quantity of thick jungle, in which wild deer and other game find ſhelter.

The fort is ſtrong, and commands the principal bays; and, in particular, the entrance into the grand harbour, or inner bay, which affords at all ſeaſons and in every variety of weather, a ſecure ſhelter to ſhips of all deſcriptions, being land-locked on all ſides, and ſufficiently deep and capacious to receive the largeſt veſſel, or any number of veſſels. This harbour is alſo overlooked by Fort Oſtenburg, a ſtrong fort ſtanding on a cliff, which projects into the ſea; it was originally built by the Portugueſe out of the ruins of ſome celebrated pagodas which once ſtood here. This fort cannot be attacked by ſea, till the fort of Trincomale be firſt taken, and the entrance of the harbour forced. In the bay the ſhores are ſo bold, and the water ſo deep cloſe up to them, that it is almoſt impoſſible to ſtep from the rocks into the veſſels that moor alongſide of them. This harbour, from its nature and ſituation, is that which ſtamps Ceylon one of our moſt valuable acquiſitions in the Eaſt Indies.

Malativoe.

The next poſt to Trincomale on this ſide is Malativoe, which ſtands in a very romantic and delightful ſituation, thirty-five miles E by S of Jafnapatam. Here the Dutch had a ſmall factory with a fort, but it was never conſidered as capable of any defence. Cloſe by the fort is a ſmall village; and a river which here falls into the ſea, forms a harbour ſufficient to admit ſmall craft. The principal employment of the inhabitants is fiſhing; and with this article they ſupply the fort of Trincomale. Cattle and poultry are here in great abundance, and ſell aſtoniſhingly cheap. Game is exceedingly plentiful, and the woods abound with wildhog and deer.

Jafnapatam—Point Pedro.

Proceeding northward from Malativoe, we find the northern extremity of the iſland ſtretched out into an oblong peninſula, almoſt cut off from the reſt by a branch of the ſea, which penetrates nearly acroſs the iſland. This diſtrict, known by the name of Jafnapatam, looks directly toward Negapatam on the Coromandel coaſt, and is conſidered as the moſt healthy in the iſland. Fruits, vegetables, game and poultry, abound every where in this diſtrict. There appears to be ſomething in the atmoſphere here different from the other parts of the iſland; for it is only in the tract which lies between Point Pedro and Jaffna that ſheep have ever been reared with ſucceſs. The articles of foreign commerce produced here are of no great value, for though it affords ſome cinnamon and pepper, yet they are of an inferior kind to that which grows in the ſouthweſt of the iſland.

The fort and town of Jafnapatam ſtands in lat. 9 41 N, lon. 80 10 E, at the diſtance of ſome miles from the ſea, but communicates with it by means of a river navigable by boats. The river enters the ſea near Point Pedro, where there is alſo a fort and harbour, in lat. 9 52 N, lon. 80 27 E. The paſſage from Point Pedro to Negapatam is uſually made by boats in a few hours. The fort of Jafnapatam is ſmall, but exceedingly neat and well built; and the pettah is larger and more populous than that of Trincomale.

The greateſt number of the inhabitants are of Mooriſh extraction, and are divided into ſeveral tribes, known by the names of Lubbahs, Mopleys, Chittys, and Choliars: they carry on here a variety of manufactures, of coarſe cloths, calicos, handkerchiefs, ſhawls, ſtockings, &c.

The road to the ſouthweſt of Jafnapatam is extremely tedious and diſagreeable. The paths are often very narrow, paſſing through thick woods and heavy ſands; and are very much infeſted with wild hogs, elephants,

and buffalos. Theſe circumſtances render a journey by this way very unpleaſant; and thoſe who are compelled by buſineſs to undertake it, prefer, if the ſeaſon permit, to coaſt along in thoſe large paſſage boats called Donies. The narrow ſea which lies between this ſide of the iſland and the continent, is called the gulf of Manaar, from a ſmall iſland of that name lying off the coaſt of Ceylon, about forty miles ſouth by weſt of Jafnapatam.

Manaar.

The iſland of Manaar is ſeparated from Ceylon by an arm of the ſea about two miles broad, which at low water is almoſt dry, with the exception of affordable channel in the middle not exceeding forty yards in breadth, and uſually called the Straits of Manaar. The paſſage from this iſland to Ramiſeram on the Coromandel coaſt is not above fourteen leagues; and a line of ſandbanks runs quite acroſs from Manaar to Ramiſeram, known by the name of Adam's bridge. The name and ſituation of theſe banks are connected with a variety of curious traditions among the natives. The ſhortneſs of the paſſage from Ramiſeram to Manaar, is particularly uſeful on account of the ſpeedy conveyance it affords to people on buſineſs, and to the communication of intelligence. Small boats continually ply between theſe two places, and paſſengers may be ferried over for a trifle. Government has alſo boats ſtationed here for the purpoſe of conveying the *tapal*, or letter bags, between Ceylon and the continent.

The Dutch built a fort on the iſland of Manaar, with a view to command the paſſage, and the communication with the continent by Adam's bridge. It was principally intended to prevent the ſubjects of the king of Candy from ſmuggling over any of the produce of the iſland, particularly ſpiceries; and alſo to cut off all intercourſe between that prince and thoſe of the continent, by which he might have been enabled to form alliances dangerous to their intereſts. The protection of the pearl banks and pearl fiſhery, which lie at no great diſtance from this iſland, are alſo another principal object for erecting a fort here. It alſo contributed conſiderably to the revenues of government as a ſtation, where certain duties were levied on the vaſt quantities of calicos, coarſe muſlins, cottons, and other articles, brought through this paſſage to Columbo by the Moors, Malabars, and other inhabitants of the continent. The fort ſtands near the ſtrait which ſeparates the iſland from Ceylon, in lat. 9 0 N, lon. 80 4 E, and about 150 miles N of Columbo.

Ariſpo.

Proceeding along the coaſt from Manaar, the country is ſandy, wild, and barren; and the woods are ſo infeſted with wild animals, that it is extremely dangerous to travel along the roads here without a proper guard. About ſix miles onward we meet with the village of Arippo, where the civil and military officers, who attend the pearl fiſhery, reſide during the ſeaſon when it is carried on. They have here built for their accommodation a *choultry*, or ſtone barracks, which alſo ſerves for the reception of occaſional travellers. Arippo is the only place hereabouts where good water can be procured. This neceſſary of life, at that part of the coaſt, is not only bad, but very ſcarce, and often obtained with great difficulty. The woods in the neighbourhood are very full of deer and wild hogs. Great abundance of theſe animals are brought by the Cingleſe peaſants to the officers ſtationed here, during the ſeaſon of the fiſhery.

Gondatchy.

Six miles further on, and twelve miles from Manaar, lies the bay of Condatchy, where all the boats are collected for the pearl fiſhery. The bay forms nearly a half-moon; the beach which ſurrounds it is an extenſive ſandy waſte, with only a few miſerable huts ſcattered along the ſhore, between the bay and the woods

which ſkirt the beach. Such is the appearance which the bay of Condatchy preſents at moſt ſeaſons of the year; but during the fiſhery, the picture is entirely reverſed. At that time the bay is crowded with ſmall veſſels, and the beach preſents an aſtoniſhing multitude of people from every quarter of India. The difference of their appearance, their language, their manners, all afford a moſt entertaining ſpectacle.

Calpenteen—Putallom—Chilou.

The coaſt ſouthward continues its deſert and barren appearance, except where it is covered by almoſt impenetrable jungles, and the country much infeſted with buffalos and elephants. The firſt poſt we come to is Calpenteen, about fifty miles from Manaar. It is oppoſite a ſmall iſland of the ſame name which lies a little way out at ſea. This is one of the beſt places on the whole iſland for game.

Putallom, fifteen miles further, is remarkable for its ſalt-pans. This place before the arrival of Europeans on the iſland, ſupplied the natives with ſalt; and on account of its convenient ſituation, was pitched upon by the Dutch for manufacturing the ſalt with which they ſupplied the king of Candy's dominions, according to the articles of their treaty with him. The ſalt-pans are formed by an arm of the ſea which overflows part of the country between Putallom and Calpenteen.

Thirty miles further ſouthward is Chilou, a village where the Dutch have erected houſes for the entertainment of ſtrangers. It ſtands on the banks of a broad river; with another at no great diſtance. The country around this place is particularly wild; and perhaps there is no road in the iſland more dangerous to travel, from the multitude of wildbeaſts with which it is infeſted.

Negombo.

From Chilou nothing worthy of obſervation occurs till we arrive at Negombo, a very pleaſant village, within twenty miles of Columbo. Here the flat and open country preſents a moſt beautiful proſpect to the traveller. The paſtures are of the greeneſt and richeſt kind; and the fields are peculiarly well adapted to rice, from the conſtant ſupply of water; as the whole is very eaſily inundated during the rainy ſeaſon. The number of rivers which interſect, and ſhady hedges which ſurround theſe rich fields, joined to the beautiful *topes* or groves every where interſperſed among them, at once contribute to their fertility, and give them the moſt luxurious appearance.

Negombo is ſituate on the ſeacoaſt in a moſt pictureſque ſpot, accounted one of the healthieſt in the iſland. The Dutch built a fort here for the protection of the cinnamon-cutters, as a conſiderable quantity of that ſpice grows in the adjacent diſtrict, and is reckoned equal in quality to any in the iſland. The fort is not ſtrong, being only defended by a ſteep ſquare embankment of ſand encompaſſed with a thick hedge of the milk-tree: the front alone is conſtructed of ſtone work, and has a regular gate and draw-bridge at its entrance.

Negombo is the largeſt village in Ceylon, and very advantageouſly calculated for carrying on inland trade, particularly with Columbo and its neighbourhood, as a branch of the Mulvaddy here runs into the ſea. At the mouth of it is a ſmall harbour, where ſloops and other ſmall veſſels often put in and land their cargoes, which are afterward conveyed up the Mulivaddy, and then, by canals which communicate with it, to the lake which ſkirts the town of Columbo. The country through which this communication is carried on is perfectly flat for a great way in every direction, and abounds with conſiderable lakes and rivers, which give the greateſt facility to forming canals. The ſides of the rivers and canals are ſkirted with thick woods and jungle, which afford a moſt grateful ſhade to the paſſengers from

the ſcorching heat of the ſun, and alſo ſupply the inhabitants with plenty of fuel, as the rivers do with the greateſt abundance of fiſh.

From Negombo ſouthward the road is extremely pleaſant, and ſhaded the whole way to Columbo; and our return to that place completes the circuitous tour of the Britiſh dominions. The interior parts of the iſland, which remain to be deſcribed, are under a different ſovereign.

IBRAHIM: A PERSIAN TALE.

A PROFOUND peace had reigned in Shirvan, a province of Perſia; its happy inhabitants enjoyed quietly all thoſe advantages which a wiſe prince knows how to procure to his ſubjects. His name was Ibrahim: wholly intent on the happineſs of his people, he tempered his authority with excellent laws; attentively watched over his miniſters that they might render impartial juſtice to all, encouraged induſtry in agriculture and arts, and wiſely diſtributed rewards and puniſhments as found requiſite; by theſe means he had fixed on a ſolid baſis the ſecurity and tranquillity of every part of his dominions, and introduced into them a joyful and happy proſperity. While that nation was in the ſummit of its felicity, and unanimouſly poured forth bleſſings, dictated by tender gratitude, on their ſovereign, news was brought of ſuch a nature as to cauſe the utmoſt conſternation.

The haughty Tamerlane, who had then made himſelf the terror of Aſia, eager to extend ſtill more the boundaries of his empire, was approaching the province of Shirvan with a numerous army to ſubdue it, and add that to his other conqueſts. At the ſorrowful news, Ibrahim, much more uneaſy for his people, whom he ſaw threatened with the worſt of ills, than for himſelf, aſſembled without delay his miniſters in council, in order to deliberate upon what was to be done. Oſman, the general of his army, a haughty and valiant man: cried out immediately—War, war, muſt be declared. Let the fierce Tamerlane come, it is here that he ſhall find who can at laſt pull down his pride. No one, O king! among us will refuſe to ſhed his blood to the laſt drop, for thee, for thy children, for our fields, for our country. The proud foe ſhall ſee how hard it is to fight againſt a nation determined to ſacrifice all, ſooner than ſubmit to his cruel and abhorred yoke. When the magnanimous warrior had re-ſeated himſelf: Uſbec, the keeper of the royal treaſures, roſe and ſaid—I, ſire, before all, offer for thee my blood, my life, if thou doeſt decide for war, and thinkeſt by ſuch a meaſure to ſave us. However, againſt ſo powerful an army, flushed by repeated victories, how can our people, ſo inferior in numbers, and by a long peace unaccuſtomed to warlike enterpriſes, oppoſe a proper reſiſtance? Peace, I therefore think, it would be adviſable to aſk for, if any other can be hoped from the cruel Tamerlane, but what ariſes from an intolerable and diſgraceful ſlavery. I ſee no refuge but in flight. Thy treaſures and thy royal perſon muſt be ſpeedily ſheltered in other regions; we, as faithful ſubjects, will follow thy ſteps wherever it may pleaſe thee to retire. Tamerlane will not make a long ſtay in an empty kingdom; his ambition will carry him to make more diſtant conqueſts; and when the ſtorm is paſt, heaven may open us a way to return to our poſſeſſions, and our former abodes. The opinions of the grandees were divided between the two oppoſite parties; ſome were for oppoſing force and intrepidity to the forces of Tamerlane; others thought it wiſer to avoid his yoke by flight. Ibrahim, having heard the very different propoſals, ſaid, I commend the ſpirit and valour of thoſe who are

ready bravely to expoſe their lives for their country; and by ſuch a proof my love toward you would increaſe in a high degree, if it were capable of augmentation; but that very love I bear you, will not ſuffer me to ſee blood, that is ſo dear to me, ſhed in my behalf. It is true that flight could ſhelter me from his power, but the rage of Tamerlane would fall much more cruelly upon the unhappy people that remained expoſed to his fury. I thank heaven for ſuggeſting to me a better thought to ſave you all. You ſhall ſoon be acquainted with it; meanwhile pray fervently to heaven to ſecond my vows.

The council being diſſolved, he immediately began preparing gifts of the richeſt kind, and with them reſolved to go to meet Tamerlane, in order to obtain the ſafety of his people. Tamerlane had commanded that invariably the preſents offered to him ſhould be nine in number. Ibrahim, conforming to that law, preſented himſelf to him, and offered for his acceptance, nine beautiful horſes, richly adorned with gold and pearls; nine leopards trained for chace, all having fine golden collars; nine ſilken tents elegantly embroidered with gold and ſilver; nine India carpets worked in the moſt maſterly ſtyle; nine golden veſſels ſet with precious ſtones of high value; and in the ſame manner were his other gifts, all extremely rich and of ſingular workmanſhip. Finally, he preſented to him ſome ſlaves, but they were only eight in number. Where is the other ſlave? aſked then fiercely the Tartarian king. He is at thy feet, ſaid Ibrahim, proſtrating himſelf before him. Thou wilt have no ſlave more ſubmiſſive, nor more faithful; and my chains will be welcome to me, if by them I can obtain favour and ſecurity for my diſtreſſed people, from thy wrath. O! mighty Tamerlane! have pity on them alone, let them be free from all inſult; and as for myſelf, diſpoſe of me as thou pleaſeſt; I am already thine. Moved by this behaviour, that haughty ſoul, naturally fierce, was totally changed; he raiſed Ibrahim, and ſaid: A very different lot than ſlavery is due to ſuch exalted virtue. Thou ſhalt be the firſt among my intimate friends: I ſhall regard thee as a brother, as a father. Return joyfully to thy people: continue to render them happy as thou haſt done till now. If my fate did not call me to more extenſive and glorious enterpriſes, my greateſt pleaſure would be to live in a ſmall kingdom, doing all my endeavours to imitate thee.

On the MISFORTUNES *which ariſe from the* NEGLECT *of* FEMALE DUTIES, *and the* MISERIES *which reſult from a* DISSIPATED LIFE.

'PERHAPS (ſays an author * of acknowledged celebrity) the intereſts of true friendſhip, elegant converſation, mental improvement, ſocial pleaſure, and conjugal comfort, never received ſuch a blow as when faſhion iſſued out that arbitrary and univerſal decree, that every body muſt be acquainted with every body. Together with that conſequent, but rather inconvenient clauſe, that every body muſt go every where every night.' In an age, where diſſipation reigns with unbounded influence, and where the female character ſeems to have undergone a total change, it may not be improper to point out a few of the ill conſequences which muſt ariſe from this faſhionable *mania* of the times. Still, I am not moroſely going to condemn amuſements, or to expect the livelineſs of youth to appear with the gravity of years. I am going to point out the impro-

* Dr. Hunter.

priety of making pleaſure the grand buſineſs, inſtead of applying to it as merely a recreation of life.

The modern miſtreſs of a family no longer ſuperintends its arrangement, or to each of her domeſtics appropriates their ſeparate concerns, for thoſe hours are ſpent in ſleep, which were formerly devoted to uſeful occupations, and a morning of lethargic indolence is the conſequence of a night, that has been devoted to cards. Even the calculation of family expences are left to a houſekeeper, or ſteward, and the bills are diſcharged upon merely knowing their amount; and thus is the property of the huſband placed in the hands of his domeſtics, who, unleſs they happen to be highly principled, are invited to commit a crime. Ruin frequently is the conſequence of this miſplaced confidence; and thoſe who have blazoned for a ſhort period, diſappear like a meteor in the ſkies; when, had there been but a moderate degree of attention to the family arrangements, they could not have thoughtleſsly augmented the number of their debts! Could the evil be confined merely to the imprudent, it would not be a circumſtance greatly to be deplored; but the innocent unfortunately ſuffer for the crimes of the guilty, and their offſpring become the victims of diſtreſs.

Ye thoughtleſs pupils of pleaſure and diſſipation, how can you reconcile the idea of entailing miſery upon beings, to whom ye have given life? Does not the animal creation ſet you a pattern of maternal fondneſs? And yet you can calmly neglect the duties, both of the mother and the wife! 'No man ever proſpered in the world (obſerves the late Dr. Hunter) without he was bleſt with the co-operation of his wife; for let him be ever ſo frugal, regular, and induſtrious, all goes for nothing if ſhe is proſuſe.—With what ſpirit and perſeverance will he labour in his vocation, when he knows that his earnings will be faithfully diſpoſed! with what confidence will he either reſort to his farm, or his merchandiſe; fly over land, ſail over ſeas; meet with difficulty, and encounter danger, if he is aſſured that he is not ſpending his ſtrength in vain; and that indulgent heaven has crowned all his other bleſſings, with that of a true and faithful wife!'

If the love of diſſipation, and the evils which attend it, were only attached to the higher ſpheres of life, it would not be ſo deſtructive to the intereſt of ſociety; neither could its effect be ſo heartily deplored! but the firſt peereſs in the realm is ſcarcely leſs inattentive to the female duties, than the wife of a man who ſupports a family by his honeſt exertions in trade; each are engaged in a ſucceſſive round of viſiting, or company; and each are equally inattentive to their children's claims.

How intereſting an employment to an affectionate mother, is that of cultivating the infant mind, and carefully implanting thoſe ſeeds of virtue, which the hand of time will ripen into the moſt luxurious fruit! 'Education on the part of the mother, (ſays the author whom I have quoted) commences from the moment ſhe has the proſpect of bearing the name, and the care of her own health may be conſidered as a duty which ſhe owes to the child ſhe is expecting to bear.' The ſentiments of this amiable man, have made but little impreſſion upon the faſhionable females of the preſent day, or the nightly meetings in the metropolis would not ſo frequently be attended by the variety of young married women in that ſtate. Health at theſe aſſemblies is ſacrificed to faſhion; and ſocial friendſhip falls a victim to folly and taſte. Even the tender duties of a mother, are now transferred into an hireling's hands; and the lacteal ſtream of bounteous nature the helpleſs infant is not permitted to draw! The nurſery is even removed to ſome part of the manſion, where the ſuſceptible feelings of the parent cannot be wounded by her offſpring's cries; and a five minutes

viſit daily to the apartment, is all that can be ſpared from more intereſting purſuits! To what a pitch of folly, nay, even of inhumanity, can faſhion conduct her votaries, when it can induce them to break through the ſtrongeſt falſities; when it can make a mother forget the duties ſhe owes to her offspring, and make pleaſure a dearer object than a child!

Allowing, however, that during the ſtate of infancy, a child never feels the want of its mother's care; that prudent attendants are provided, in whom others have placed confidence; yet who, like an anxious parent, will watch the opening of the mind? Who, like her, will have penetration to diſcover its leading features? Who will encourage the timid? or who will repreſs the bold? or who will endeavour to find out whether the faults of childhood ariſe from natural imperfection, or badneſs of heart?—How can the parent, who has never been the friend and playfellow of her children, ever form an opinion of the real propenſity of their minds? or how can ſhe expect to inſpire them with confidence and affection, when, inſtead of feeling tenderneſs for her perſon, they are merely taught to treat her with reſpect?—This is one of the melancholy inſtances of diſſipation, which actually ſinks the mother below the level of the brute; for amid the animal creation, how ſtrong is the propenſity to cheriſh with the utmoſt precaution their young! Among the experimental obſervers of natural philoſophy, how many inſtances might be brought to prove the effect of parental care; and can human beings ſupport the thought of being ſurpaſſed in affection by the truſty ſpaniel, or the Greenland bear *?

But, as I before obſerved, this inattention to domeſtic duties is not confined to the higher ſpheres; for the daughter of the meaneſt mechanic, muſt now be educated at a boarding-ſchool, inſtead of receiving inſtruction from an anxious mother's care!—Theſe ſeminaries, which ſo much abound within the precincts of the metropolis, I conſider as inſtitutions merely calculated for the propagation of vice; or as abſolute nurſery grounds for ſowing the ſeeds of ſeduction, and contaminating, inſtead of cultivating the mind! I do not mean this ſatire ſhould be conſidered as unlimited, for I know the heads of ſeveral ſchools, whom I highly reſpect; but I mean it to be attached to thoſe of inferior order, where, from the ignorance of their conductors, the pupils cannot expect to become wiſe. Still the unfortunate children acquire a ſmattering of accompliſhments, they are inflated with vanity, and puffed up with pride; and what is worſe, they learn to deſpiſe the authors of their exiſtence, for not poſſeſſing thoſe qualifications, which prove ſuch a ſource of miſery to themſelves. They become too much the fine lady to deſcend to ordinary occupations, and ſpurn the idea of making themſelves uſeful in the houſe; a circulating library aſſiſts the completion of their ruin, and they credulouſly believe all the libertine's vows! It would be impoſſible for me to enumerate, within the limits of a periodical paper, the various unfortunate inſtances which the preſent mode of education has produced, but at a future period I ſhall take the liberty of entertaining my readers with the ſeparate hiſtory of different females, both in high and middling life; knowing, that example is always more impreſſive than precepts, and indulging the hope, that they may be induced to fulfil the moſt important duty of life!

* A bitch was once cut open by a pupil of Dr. Hunter's, who, unmindful of her own torture, began licking her young, &c. and a white bear, which was wounded in the Greenland fiſhery, carried her whelp from the ſpot of danger, and inſtantly expired.

LOUISA: OR THE FOUNDLING.

Concluded from page 93.

AS Louiſa approached the abode of her anceſtors, her mind entirely loſt that ſerenity with which it was naturally impreſſed; and when the carriage ſtopped at Raymond caſtle, a variety of conflicting paſſions agitated her breaſt. Upon Mrs. Bliſſington's ſervant enquiring for ſir Henry Raymond, a reſpectable man, out of livery, inſtantly came to the carriage-door, who, upon turning his eyes toward Louiſa, ſeemed abſolutely unable to move. For ſome moments he appeared not to have heard Mrs. Bliſſington's interrogation, of—whether ſir Charles was too ill to be ſeen? For they had heard at the porter's lodge, that he was attended by a phyſician, and that for ſome time he had been an invalid.

But recovering from the ſurpriſe which Louiſa's perſon had created, he informed her, ſir Henry was much too ill to receive gueſts; and that lady Raymond, likewiſe, had not ſeen any company for the laſt month or ſix weeks. Their buſineſs, however, was of too urgent a nature, even to admit of illneſs as an excuſe, and Mr. Colethorpe, therefore, told the aſtoniſhed domeſtic, that they could not leave the caſtle until the object of their journey was obtained. So ſaying, he immediately requeſted that the ladies might be ſhown into a room. The man, without replying, did as he had been directed, and preceded the party through a ſpacious hall, when opening the door of an elegant library, he ſaid, my lady, this gentleman inſiſted upon being admitted upon ſome important concern.

Lady Raymond was reclining upon a ſofa, while three lovely little children were playing upon the floor, and though ſhe ſeemed embarraſſed at the firſt appearance of the party, ſhe paid her compliments to them with gracefulneſs and eaſe. The agitation of Louiſa, however, ſoon arreſted her attention, and ſhe caught the infectious tears from her eyes, which Mrs. Bliſſington obſerving, ſaid, 'my beloved Louiſa, why will you give way to emotions which it is abſolutely neceſſary you ſhould try to repreſs? Do you not perceive that your agitation has alarmed lady Raymond? and I am ſure you would be ſhocked at adding to the preſent diſtreſſed ſtate of her mind.'—'Indeed, my dear madam (continued ſhe, turning to her ladyſhip) I grieve that it ſhould have been neceſſary for us to intrude, but I have buſineſs of the utmoſt moment to tranſact with ſir Henry, which I flatter myſelf will be ſufficient to plead my excuſe.'

There was ſomething ſo completely infatuating in Mrs. Bliſſington's manner, and ſo ſweetly ſoothing in the tones of her voice, that ſhe ſeemed to check the apprehenſion of lady Raymond; and in her turn, ſhe apologized for not having aſked the party to take a ſeat; then requeſting to know the name of the lady to whom ſhe had the honour of ſpeaking, ſaid ſhe would inform ſir Henry of the circumſtance, though ſhe feared he was too ill to be ſeen. Her ladyſhip inſtantly quitted the apartments, followed by the ill-fated pledges of her love, whoſe intereſting appearance rendered the amiable Louiſa ſtill leſs anxious to aſſert her claim. Mrs. Bliſſington took the opportunity of lady Raymond's abſence to inſpire her with fortitude to encounter the ſcene ſhe was to undergo; telling her, that when once ſhe obtained the poſſeſſion of her fortune, ſhe might provide for the children, and their mother likewiſe; but that as to the man, whoſe life had been one ſcene of iniquity, he deſerved to feel the effect of his crimes.

Lady Raymond did not return to the library for twenty minutes, and her countenance bore the traces of tears. She then informed Mrs. Bliſ-

ſington, her huſband was much too ill to ſupport an interview, and had not the ſlighteſt recollection of his name.

'Sir Henry could not poſſibly recollect a perſon, madam, (replied Mrs. Bliſſington) whom I believe he never ſaw in his life; but if you will indulge me with a pen and ink, and ſuffer your ſervant to carry up a note to him, I am ſure he will feel the neceſſity there is for the interview which I am ſo anxious to obtain.' The requiſites for writing were placed before Mrs. Bliſſington, and ſhe immediately wrote the following note.

'Mrs. Bliſſington is extremely ſorry to intrude herſelf into ſir Henry Raymond's preſence, at ſo *mal a propos* a time; but a report has reached her ears, through the medium of Eliza Dawſon, reſpecting the heireſs of ſir Henry Raymond, her long adopted child. In juſtice to this amiable and injured orphan, Mrs. Bliſſington informs ſir Henry, that ſhe feels it her duty to inveſtigate the affair, and therefore begs to be permitted into his preſence, to prevent her from being compelled to apply to meaſures which might be attended with very unpleaſing effects.'

The debilitated ſtate of health which lady Raymond repreſented her huſband to be in, induced Mrs. Bliſſington to indite her note in this dubious kind of ſtyle; but ſhe waited near an hour before ſhe received any anſwer, when, at length, the ſervant returned, and ſhe was conducted into an apartment where the wretched man was confined. Shocking and execrable as had been his conduct, yet his appearance was calculated to diſarm both reſentment and rage; he was ſupported by pillows, and his reſpiration was ſo difficult, that it ſeemed an abſolute exertion to ſpeak. Upon the advance of his gueſt, he pointed to a chair, which was placed near the bed on which he was extended, and intreated her to ſpeak in a very low tone of voice.

Mrs. Bliſſington obeyed his requeſt, and briefly related every thing that had occurred reſpecting the child; merely concealing Lemoine's corroboration, and the memorial which he had drawn up and ſigned. During the relation of theſe unexpected charges, ſir Henry's countenance underwent many varieties of change, but when he fancied ſhe had no ſtronger evidence than the aſſertions of Eliza Dawſon, he ſeemed to acquire greater compoſure of mind.

'I am not aſtoniſhed, madam, (ſaid he) at your having been deceived by this woman's fabrication, for ſhe is capable of the moſt refined ſpecies of art; and at the death of my dear, and ever to be lamented brother, I was very near being drawn into her ſnare. Fortunately, however, I diſcovered the infamy of her character, and of courſe refuſed to make her my wife; but I paid a handſome premium for her at a convent, and flattered myſelf ſhe would have leiſure to repent of the paſt enormities of her life. The revolution in France, I ſuppoſe, was the means of her obtaining liberty, for depend upon it, madam, ſhe has never been at Algiers, and every thing ſhe has told you is the reſult of invention, aided by revenge, or ſome other diabolical deſign. The nurſe, who attended the amiable lady Raymond, fortunately, madam, is ſtill alive, ſhe was the perſon to whom Dr. Manſel delivered the infant, and can ſwear to its being a ſtill born child. The doctor himſelf unluckily is at preſent in the Weſt Indies, but the moſt poſitive proof of the truth of my aſſertions may eaſily be obtained, and I cannot ſufficiently applaud the nobleneſs of your conduct, for endeavouring to fathom this iniquitous affair.'

Mrs. Bliſſington was ſo completely ſtruck with the depravity of this abandoned man's conduct, who appeared to be abſolutely at the very verge of life, that ſome moments elapſed before ſhe was able to reply to his aſſertions, though ſhe endeavoured to conceal the horror they had excited in her mind.

The viſible aſtoniſhment which was depictured in the butler's countenance, upon his firſt beholding Louiſa's face, convinced Mrs. Bliſſington, that the ſtrong reſemblance which Eliza Dawſon had often ſaid ſhe bore to her mother, muſt have been the cauſe by which it had been produced; and this opinion was ſtrengthened, by her having paſſed through a drawing-room, where a full length figure of lady Raymond was placed. The likeneſs was ſo ſtrong, that Mrs. Bliſſington involuntarily made an exclamation, which caught the attention of the ſervant who was conducting her to ſir Charles' room; for if the dreſs had not proved that it was not a modern picture, ſhe would really have imagined it had been done for her adopted child.

She therefore told ſir Henry, it was not poſſible for her to know any thing of Mrs. Dawſon's private character, and ſhe certainly might be the abandoned creature he had thought proper to repreſent, but the fondneſs ſhe felt for the amiable object of her affection, made it impoſſible for her implicitly to rely upon what he ſaid; 'and I have one reaſon to give (continued ſhe) for believing her to be the daughter of lady Raymond, which I am inclined to think, even you, ſir Henry, will allow to carry ſome little weight.' So ſaying, ſhe quitted the apartment for the purpoſe of conducting her adopted child up ſtairs.

The agitation of Louiſa, at hearing ſhe muſt appear before the being who had ſo many years enjoyed her natural rights, may be conceived, but it is abſolutely impoſſible for the power of language completely to deſcribe. At length, reſtored to a tolerable degree of compoſure, by the perſuaſions and maternal counſel of Mrs. Bliſſington, with trembling ſteps ſhe followed her to the apartment where her fraudulent uncle was confined. 'Miſs Raymond, ſir Henry,' ſaid the amiable woman, in a determined accent, preſenting the image of his departed ſiſter to his aſtoniſhed ſight. 'Oh God!' exclaimed he, ſtruck with the too perfect reſemblance, 'can lady Raymond herſelf, be again reſtored to life!' then pauſing for a moment, as if ſhocked at the exclamation, he violently ſtruck his forehead in the wildneſs of deſpair!

Mrs. Bliſſington evidently perceived the ſcene was of too trying a nature for the delicate ſpirits of Louiſa to ſuſtain, and leading her to the door, ſhe preſented her with a ſmelling bottle, and requeſted her immediately to go down ſtairs: then turning to ſir Henry, ſhe drew from her pocket the memorial which had been drawn up by Lemoine. This ſhe read, without attending to the agitation which it was evident her doing ſo had produced; for the delicacy ſhe at firſt had felt in conſequence of his ſituation, his ſubſequent conduct had completely effaced. Before ſhe came to the concluſion of the paper, he exclaimed, 'in mercy, madam, read no more! for I, who have ſometimes doubted even the exiſtence of an Almighty, am now convinced that this muſt be his work! Yes, yes, it muſt have been the juſt decree of Providence, or a plan ſo judiciouſly executed, could never have been found out! But will you expoſe me to my wife?' continued he, 'Will you beggar my children? Is this diſeaſed body to find no place for repoſe? Yes, it is juſtice which demands reſtitution from me, but never let me behold my injured niece any more!—Yet, ah!' ſaid he, after pauſing a few moments, 'it is not only to her, that I muſt deliver up my accounts; if I tremble at appearing before an earthly tribunal, how ſhall I preſume to approach an incenſed Redeemer's throne!'

The moment Mrs. Bliſſington perceived theſe ſymptoms of apprehenſion, ſhe ſaid every thing in her power to compoſe the agitated ſtate of his mind; told him, he did injuſtice to the beloved child of her adoption, in ſuppoſing ſhe would not amply provide for thoſe to whom ſhe was ſo nearly allied.

The debility which had ſo forcibly ſtruck Mrs. Bliſſington, upon firſt entering the ſick man's room, increaſed to a degree ſtill more alarming, and ſhe inſtantly rung the bell for the nurſe. Inſtead of the attendant, lady Raymond entered, with a countenance which repreſented the very image of deſpair; which ſir Henry perceiving, faintly articulated, 'Oh, my Matilda, what an exceſs of wretchedneſs have I brought upon your head!'

'I know it all!' ſhe exclaimed, in an impaſſioned accent, at the ſame time burſting into a flood of tears; 'my foreboding heart tells me, I have no right to the name of Raymond, and that this lady, or ſome other, has a prior claim!'

'No, thank heaven,' he replied, 'I have not been quite ſo great a villain; but you have reaſon to curſe the hour that made you my wife; I have brought miſery upon you, and poverty on my children, for the lawful heireſs of all my brother's property is at this moment alive!'

'Great God, I thank thee!' ejaculated lady Raymond, proſtrating herſelf at the ſame time upon her knees. 'Poverty, I can brave, misfortune I can encounter, but my mind is not equal to the ſuſtainment of diſgrace! Compoſe yourſelf;' continued ſhe, obſerving the agitation of her huſband, 'do you think that fortune has the power of conferring happineſs on this life? Oh, my dear ſir Henry, you have in vain endeavoured to procure it, but I truſt you will in future derive it from the ſociety of your children, and your wife!'

'Deareſt Matilda,' replied he, 'extending his arms toward her, 'how little did I know the value of the treaſure I poſſeſſed; it is true, that I have ſought happineſs in the haunts of diſſipation, when I ought to have looked for it in thy tender feeling breaſt!' As Mrs. Bliſſington perceived the converſation became too intereſting for a third perſon to witneſs, ſhe told lady Raymond, ſhe would ſtep down for a ſhort time, and by that means ſhe gave ſir Henry an opportunity of explaining what had happened in the moſt favourable manner that was poſſible for him to deſcribe.

Mr. Colethorpe informed Mrs. Bliſſington, that though ſir Henry acknowledged the legalities of Louiſa's pretenſions, yet it would be neceſſary that he ſhould make a formal renunciation of his claim, and as a proper inſtrument had been drawn up for the purpoſe, the only thing requiſite was to have it ſigned. While they were converſing upon this important ſubject, a very elegant looking young man entered the room, who knowing that no company had for ſome time been admitted into the caſtle, appeared ſurpriſed at beholding ſuch a variety of gueſts. Notwithſtanding which, he paid his compliments to the party, with a peculiar degree of elegance and eaſe, and ringing the bell, he enquired of the ſervant, whether his ſiſter was not coming down.

Mrs. Bliſſington informed him, they had had the honour of ſeeing her ladyſhip, and at the ſame time begged ſhe might not be diſturbed; this ſeemed rather to increaſe the ſurpriſe their appearance had created, and he expreſſed his aſtoniſhment that his ſiſter ſhould remain ſo long up ſtairs.

'We had very particular buſineſs to tranſact with ſir Henry,' ſaid Mrs. Bliſſington, 'or we ſhould not have intruded at ſo improper a time; and the near relationſhip of that lady (pointing to Louiſa) will of courſe be her apology to any of lady Raymond's friends.' Louiſa had been placed in that kind of direction which prevented ſir George Pembroke from having a complete view of her face, but the moment he heard ſhe was a relation of ſir Henry's, he immediately approached nearer her ſeat, for the purpoſe of paying his particular compliments to a young lady, to whom, by marriage, his ſiſter was allied. The inſtant his eyes came in perfect contact with miſs Raymond's features, inſtead of addreſſing

her, he ſtood the perfect image of ſurpriſe; when recovering himſelf, he ſaid, 'I have a thouſand apologies to make you; but I never beheld ſuch a reſemblance in my life!' Then ſtammering out ſome unconnected compliment, about the pleaſure he felt at ſeeing her at the caſtle, he bowed to Mrs. Bliſſington, and was hurrying out of the room, when ſeeing his ſiſter enter with viſible agitation in her countenance, he took her tenderly by the hand, and led her to a ſeat.—'You left ſir Henry better I hope, lady Raymond;' ſaid Mrs. Bliſſington, looking ſignificantly toward Mr. Colethorpe to retire, when taking the hint, both him and Mrs. Dawſon immediately walked out of the room.

'For heaven's ſake, my dear Matilda,' exclaimed ſir George, eagerly, 'tell me the cauſe of the agitation, which pains me ſo much to behold; or you, madam,' continued he, turning to Mrs. Bliſſington, 'do in pity relieve the apprehenſions I endure.'—'Lady Raymond herſelf,' replied Mrs. Bliſſington, 'will explain every thing to you, when her mind is a little more compoſed. But,' continued ſhe, taking the hand of Louiſa, 'I muſt introduce you to your new-found relation, and friend.' Lady Raymond inſtantly roſe to embrace her, and it is difficult to ſay which appeared moſt affected during the intereſting ſcene.

To ſay that ſir George Pembroke appeared aſtoniſhed at their mutual agitation, is but faintly expreſſing the various emotions which his intelligent countenance diſplayed, and in compaſſion to the ſuſpenſe he appeared to be enduring, Mrs. Bliſſington requeſted he would accompany her into an adjoining room. There, in the ſofteſt terms which it was in the power of language to make uſe of, by degrees ſhe laid open the juſtice of her adopted daughter's claims, which he not only allowed to be indiſputable, but abſolutely execrated ſir Henry Raymond's name.

'My poor Matilda, madam,' ſaid he, 'has been the child of misfortune, and unluckily I have not the power of ſhielding her from diſtreſs; for though I do not mean to ſpeak diſreſpectfully of the memory of my father, yet he left her portionleſs, and my eſtates ſwallowed up with debts!'

Pecuniary embarraſſments, my dear ſir,' lady Raymond will never experience,' ſaid Mrs. Bliſſington, 'for to render her and her children happy, will be the firſt wiſh of my Louiſa's mind, but it is only thoſe who know her intimately, that can form an opinion of the generoſity of her ſentiments, or the benevolence of her heart!

'Her countenance, madam,' replied ſir George, 'is an index to her ſentiments; yet is it to a total ſtranger, that henceforth my poor Matilda muſt be obliged? But as to that villain, who has ſo cruelly deceived her, my vengeance ſhall purſue him to the extremity of the earth!' Mrs. Bliſſington endeavoured to allay the juſtice of his reſentment, by repreſenting the weak ſtate to which ſir Henry was reduced; and by pointing out the dreadful conſequences which muſt ariſe from his cheriſhing anger againſt a being, to whom his ſiſter was ſo cloſely allied. By the arguments and perſuaſions which this amiable woman made uſe of, ſhe had at length the pleaſure of ſeeing that he became more reſigned; and he promiſed not to expreſs his indignation to lady Raymond, or make uſe of an expreſſion that could agitate her mind. What had paſſed during their abſence between that unfortunate woman and Louiſa, ſeemed to have had the power of allaying her grief, for upon re-entering the drawing-room, her countenance was more placid, and though ſhe looked unhappy, ſhe was evidently more compoſed.

Mrs. Bliſſington again approached the apartments of ſir Henry, for the purpoſe of requeſting him to execute the deed, which had been prepared; but when he found it would be neceſſary to do it in the preſence of the

being whom he had ſo cruelly injured, he declared the interview would affect him more than he was able to ſupport. At that moment the phyſician entered, and Mrs. Bliſſington of courſe quitted the room, but reſolved to wait in an adjoining chamber for the purpoſe of enquiring his opinion reſpecting the real ſtate of his patient's health. 'Madam,' ſaid he, 'I have already thought it neceſſary to tell lady Raymond, that I feared it was a very dangerous caſe; but I muſt now requeſt you to undertake the painful office of informing her, ſir Henry cannot live many days; and if his affairs are not in perfect order, it is neceſſary that he ſhould arrange them without loſs of time. The diſſipated life he has led has brought on a complication of diſorders, but the one which will prove fatal, is the dropſy in his cheſt, for you muſt perceive that it is with the utmoſt difficulty that he is able to draw his breath; he has requeſted candidly to give him my opinion, and I thought it a duty incumbent upon me not to deceive him.'

Though lady Raymond had in ſome degree been prepared for the melancholy intelligence, which Mrs. Bliſſington undertook to impart, yet after the ſhock her ſpirits had ſo recently encountered, it came upon her with double effect, as nature had not formed her for any of theſe trials, which require both exertion and fortitude to ſuſtain. On the boſom of her ſympathiſing brother, ſhe poured forth all her ſorrows, and from the ſoothing power of his tenderneſs, at length ſeemed to derive relief; neither did ſhe appear inſenſible to the affectionate ſolicitude of Louiſa, who ſaid every thing that could be likely to mitigate her grief. The moment that amiable girl heard that her uncle's recovery was impoſſible, and that he was going to ſign a deed that would be the means of reſtoring her to the poſſeſſion of her eſtates, ſhe implored her benefactreſs to conſent to the property being equally divided between lady Raymond and herſelf.

'No, my beloved Louiſa,' ſaid Mrs. Bliſſington, 'that is a diviſion to which in juſtice I cannot conſent. I have been talking to Mr. Colethorpe upon the ſubject, and we think you ought to allow lady Raymond a thouſand a year until her death, and give five thouſand pounds to each of her children, which will amount to nearly double that ſum by the time they are of age. Louiſa had been ſo accuſtomed to be guided by the opinion of her protectreſs, that Mrs. Bliſſington was aſtoniſhed to hear her diſapprove of the plan, but ſhe contended that a thouſand a year would not be ſufficient to let her aunt enjoy any of the elegances of life; 'and ſurely,' ſaid ſhe, 'out of fifteen thouſand per annum, I ought not to make it leſs than two thouſand a year.'

Mrs. Bliſſington, influenced by the amiable girl's perſuaſions, conſented that every thing ſhould be arranged as ſhe deſired; and when ſir Henry was made acquainted with the generoſity of her intentions, he ſaid, 'well, I muſt ſee this injured angel, to acknowledge the ſincerity of my repentance; and to bleſs her with my dying breath, for her goodneſs to my wife!'—'Oh!' continued he, turning his languid eyes toward heaven, 'what a dreadful, what a diſſipated life have I led! but reflection comes too late, and can I hope that my Redeemer will accept that repentance which is inſpired by the anguiſh of a ſick bed?' His conſoling companion deſired him to remember the merciful promiſe which was made to the expiring thief upon the croſs; and reminded him of the expreſſions of his Saviour, when he told us, that there was more rejoicing in Heaven over one ſinner that repented, than over ninety-nine perſons whoſe lives had been juſt. She then implored him to ſend for a clergyman, whoſe pious prayers might not only ſolace, but ſtrengthen his mind; and ſhe had the happineſs of obſerving that his devotion appeared truly fervent, and that his apprehenſions of future puniſhment proportionably declined.

Soon after the departure of the rector, he begged to ſee Louiſa, who ſeemed now to dread the interview more than himſelf, but acquiring fortitude by the counſel of her amiable monitreſs, ſhe at length ſummoned up courage enough to enable her to approach the ſick bed.

'Can you bear to behold the wretch who has ſo cruelly abuſed the confidence which an affectionate and amiable brother too credulouſly placed? Oh!' continued he, 'I am undeſerving of this goodneſs; and though I admire the generoſity of your conduct, yet it ſeems to augment the enormity of my crimes. Yes, yes, you have doubly ſtamped me as a villain, by the noble ſacrifice you have made to my children and my wife!'

'My dear ſir,' replied the agitated Louiſa, embracing her uncle's extended hand, 'I had flattered myſelf you would not have wounded my feelings by recurring to circumſtances ſo many years paſt. We all of us have committed actions which demand repentance, and ſurely ſuch frail beings can have no right to condemn. I have never felt the injury you ſuppoſe you have done me, for my beloved Mrs. Bliſſington has been at once the fondeſt of mothers and of friends! I conjure you then, in the name of the dear authors of my exiſtence, to compoſe the peturbid ſtate of your mind, and reſt aſſured that it will always afford me the higheſt ſatisfaction to ſtudy the happineſs of lady Raymond's life.'

'Oh, how like your mother are theſe generous ſentiments!' ſaid ſir Henry, gently drawing her cloſe to the bed, when after repeatedly imploring Almighty forgiveneſs, he begged that the deed might be immediately ſigned.—Mr. Colethorpe was therefore ſummoned into the apartment, and ſir Charles Raymond's will, and his wife's marriage ſettlements, delivered into his hand; and the uſurper then made a formal reſignation of the perſonal property which remained, as well as of the lands.—The ſettling of this buſineſs ſo completely agitated the departing man's feelings, that he fainted the moment it was brought to a cloſe, and it was ſo long before he diſcovered the ſlighteſt ſymptoms of exiſtence, that thoſe around him began to deſpair of ſeeing him revive. Contrary to their expectations, however, he at length recovered, and afterward dropped into a refreſhing ſleep; and when he awoke, he deſired to ſee lady Raymond, without any other perſon being preſent at the time.

During this intereſting interview, ſir George Pembroke requeſted to ſpeak with Mrs. Bliſſington, for the purpoſe of expreſſing his gratitude to her for the diſtribution of the property which Louiſa had made. 'For I know not how it is,' ſaid he, 'but I find myſelf unequal to deſcribe to miſs Raymond the admiration which I feel; it is impoſſible for me to ſay, whether I moſt admire the generoſity of her conduct, or the delicate manner in which her liberality has been diſplayed; but I was fearful, madam, of expreſſing either too much, or too little, yet I truſt you will have the goodneſs to convince her, that my heart is divided between the emotions of gratitude and eſteem;' ſo ſaying, without waiting for Mrs. Bliſſington's anſwer, he bowed reſpectfully, and hurried out of the room.

Mrs. Bliſſington had been ſo accuſtomed to ſee all the young men of her acquaintance abſolutely ſtruck with the ſuperiority of her adopted daughter's charms, that from the moment of her having been introduced to ſir George Pembroke, ſhe could not help remarking his peculiar reſerve. This, inſtead of wearing off by a more intimate acquaintance, ſeemed to increaſe every time they chanced to meet, for he entirely confined himſelf to his ſiſter's dreſſing room, and only joined the family at meals. Ten days elapſed from their arrival at the caſtle to the termination of ſir Henry Raymond's life, and ſo little pleaſure did he ſeem to feel

in the ſociety of the family, that he requeſted his ſiſter to quit it immediately after her huſband's death. This, of courſe, the preſent miſtreſs of it would not conſent to, neither would ſhe interfere with a ſingle affair of the houſe, but inſiſted upon all the ſervants applying to lady Raymond for directions, and implored her to remain poſſeſſor of the caſtle for the firſt year.

Although ſir George Pembroke treated the heireſs of Raymond caſtle with that diſtant kind of politeneſs which might have been conſtrued into diſlike, yet Mrs. Bliſſington had obſerved, that when he thought he was not attended to, he frequently gazed upon her with a countenance expreſſive of delight, and until he was ſo completely agitated with emotion as to be under the neceſſity of quitting the room. Of all the young men ſhe had ſeen, and their number was very extenſive, ſir George Pembroke was one ſhe would have choſen for the huſband of her child, and ſhe began to think that his reſerve was the reſult of affection, concealed from the pureſt delicacy of mind. She determined, therefore, to diſcover Louiſa's ſentiments upon the ſubject; but at firſt, merely enquired whether ſhe did not think ſir George Pembroke a very extraordinary young man?—'Indeed I do,' replied the ingenuous Louiſa, 'for I never ſaw ſo affectionate a brother in my life; and though he is very reſerved, he certainly is very intereſting, and ſeems to poſſeſs a refined and delicate mind.' To this opinion, Mrs. Bliſſington acceded, yet ſtill obſerved that ſhe thought him too diſtant and reſerved; this, Louiſa ſaid, ſhe could not help conſidering rather ſingular, as ſhe had frequently condemned the familiar manners of the young men of the preſent age.

This converſation convinced Mrs. Bliſſington, that ſir George Pembroke had undeſignedly made an impreſſion upon the amiable girl's heart, and ſhe determined, if ſhe did not find that the partiality was reciprocal, the youthful pair immediately ſhould part. While debating how to act in this critical ſituation, ſhe accidentally went into the drawing-room, and opening the door ſoftly, perceived ſir George deeply occupied in taking a miniature from the portrait which was hung up in the room; but inſtead of adorning it in the dreſs in which the original was taken, it appeared in that which her adopted daughter wore. He was ſo completely intent upon this intereſting employment, that he did not hear Mrs. Bliſſington enter the room, and when he perceived his occupation had been diſcovered, a bluſh of crimſon overſpread his face.

'You have detected me, madam,' ſaid he, 'in what you may perhaps think a diſgraceful action, but depend upon it, I will never baſely try to obtain an intereſt in your amiable adopted daughter's heart.—No, I am going to tear myſelf from the too lovely original, knowing that my feelings may not always be at my command. I love, I admire, I eſteem miſs Raymond; but I am not baſe enough to entertain an idea of making her my wife; yet the conſtant reſtraint I am obliged to put upon my feelings, makes me ſee the abſolute neceſſity of flight.—Had my fortune been equal to hers, how bleſt would have been my ſituation, if I could have created an intereſt in her breaſt, but our family are already too much indebted to the liberality of her diſpoſition for me to be villain enough to endeavour to increaſe the debt. I had flattered myſelf that my ſecret would have been confined to the breaſt of my ſiſter, but I think candour is neceſſary, after what you have ſeen. To-morrow, however, I purpoſe leaving Raymond caſtle, with the determination never to return.' This intention was, notwithſtanding, defeated by Mrs. Bliſſington, who was not only delighted with the noble ſentiments he expreſſed, but promiſed to uſe her influence over the object of her affection, and gave him reaſon to hope that he might excite a mutual tenderneſs in her breaſt.

Theſe promiſes ſeemed to act like a charm upon ſir George Pembroke, who no longer could be accuſed of coldneſs or reſerve; and it was eaſy to perceive, that the alteration in his manner was by no means diſpleaſing to the object of his regard. Inſtead of endeavouring to avoid her ſociety, his whole time and attention was devoted to pleaſe, and Louiſa ſoon acknowledged to her amiable protectreſs the intereſting ſenſations he had inſpired.

Though Mrs. Bliſſington looked forward to the loſs of the child of her affection with painful emotions, which ſhe thought it right to conceal, yet ſhe determined to let no ſelfiſh conſideration induce her to offer any obſtacles againſt the marriage taking place.—Louiſa, however, though ſo fondly attached to ſir George Pembroke, could not bear the idea of being ſo far ſeparated from the friend who had ſo kindly preſerved her life, and at length perſuaded her to ſell her eſtate in Derbyſhire, and buy another, within a ſhort diſtance of her houſe; and by this plan each had the opportunity of contributing to the happineſs of the other, and of courſe augmenting the felicity of their own lives.

REMARKS ON THE REIGNING TASTE IN FEMALE DRESS.

—Is, when unadorn'd, adorn'd the moſt. THOMSON.

IT was remarked, by an ingenious writer of former times, that the laſt ſighs of a beautiful woman were occaſioned leſs by the idea of the loſs of life, than the loſs of her beauty. Whatever may be the merit of this profound obſervation, which, at firſt ſight, bears the appearance of a paradox, or a ſneer, it is certain that it is not without ſome foundation in the caprices and irregularities of the female character; and that whatever degree of importance they may annex to the poſſeſſion of beauty, that alone does not engroſs every object of the boaſted fortitude and conſtancy which ſome females may diſplay. To ſet a higher value on beauty than on life, is rather an extraordinary ſtretch of ambitious vanity; but ſome degree of indulgence muſt be allowed to the prevalence of this notion, conſidering the powerful influence of female charms over the heart of man, and the natural effect of paſſion and attachment, reſulting from the mutual ſympathy of the ſexes. Notwithſtanding ſo reaſonable a ſuppoſition, it will be found, that objects of inferior conſideration will induce the ſlighty fair one to expoſe her health to eminent danger, and of courſe her life, ſooner than forego the fantaſtic attire, introduced by the extravagant votaries of faſhion. It is a common ſaying among them, that they may as well be out of the world, as out of the faſhion; and this idea, which in like manner with the former remarks, conveys ſomething like a paradox to the imagination, is ſeriouſly acted upon, and maintained to the very letter, by the numerous adopters of the light and flimſy dreſs of the preſent times. It is perſiſted in, notwithſtanding the repeated admonitions of medical men, and others, who may be competent judges of its pernicious tendency; and we may reaſonably ſuppoſe, that numbers fall victims to their own obſtinacy, and the complaints which are originally derived from this ſpecies of attire, as their primary cauſe, though they may be diſguiſed under different ſymptoms, and different denominations of diſtempers. That the ſway of faſhionable ſentiment ſhould be ſo irreſiſtible, we muſt lament, but it can eaſily be accounted for by the attentive obſerver of human nature, and more particularly by the connoiſſeurs in the female heart, and the foibles peculiar to that ſex. Scarce a week paſſes, but we read afflicting accounts

in the public papers of young ladies being burnt to death, occaſioned by the ſlight and inflammable nature of their dreſs, which is another of the fatal conſequences of this ſtrange mode of apparel, which ought to be ſeriouſly guarded againſt. Doubtleſs, to employ long and tedious harangues on a ſubject of ſuch a nature, and which approach ſo nearly to ſportive ridicule, would appear prepoſterous and pedantic, but we muſt obſerve, that there are many things, which appear light and trivial in themſelves, but which are often attended with a train of the moſt important conſequences. It has been obſerved, that gentlemen of figure and faſhion form their opinion of the ſenſe and merit of their aſſociates from a due conſideration of the peculiarities of their dreſs, which at the firſt glance would ſeem entirely to depend on the ſkill and ability of their reſpective taylors and hairdreſſers. With much more apparent reaſon, are women allowed to adopt this ſtandard to regulate their opinions of the merits and accompliſhments of the other ſex; and what may be overlooked in the opinions of gentlemen, ought not to be made matter of laughter and pleaſantry in the ſofter and more delicate ſex, who, according to the ſarcaſtic ſneer of Pope, follows that rule of faſhionable criticiſm:

> Others for language all their cares expreſs,
> And value books, as *women men, for dreſs.*
>
> ESSAY ON CRITICISM.

In ſpite of this, and a hundred other witiciſms, which ſuperficial frivolous triflers may vent on ſuch a ſubject, we may be allowed to ſay, that a greater or leſs degree of virtuous reſerve and chaſtity of ornament in the female ſex may be conſidered as an infallible indication of the ſtate of the public mind and morals in a nation. We need only look to the Romans, for the further elucidation of a ſubject, which is in reality more grave and ſerious, than from a caſual glance we might be tempted to allow. The Romans were certainly a great and a virtuous people, if any ſuch ever exiſted in the hiſtory of mankind. The incidents of the virtuous Lucretia, and the innocent Virginia, and the important conſequences that flowed from them, will prove the wide and powerful influence of the purity of the female character. During the moſt glorious periods of Roman liberty, laws were enacted reſpecting the propriety and the limits of the perſonal ornaments of the wives and daughters of Roman citizens. Though public morals in both ſexes at that time were in a ſtate of the greateſt perfection that human nature will allow of, yet theſe wiſe and renowned ſtateſmen and warriors judged it expedient to regulate, by formal decrees of the ſenate, the poſſible licentiouſneſs and caprice of their females in the choice of dreſs and perſonal ornaments. As long as Roman virtue and liberty continued to flouriſh, ſo long theſe judicious regulations were ſcrupulouſly obſerved.

The perſon of a Roman matron was then conſidered, and even now, with more reaſon, to convey the idea of the higheſt degree of female virtue, of piety, and maternal tenderneſs. When the firſt ſymptoms of decline and decay began to exhibit themſelves in that renowned republic, the ſame phenomena became viſible in the deportment of the Roman females. Immediately after the Punic wars, a period which philoſophers and hiſtorians uniformly fix on, as the firſt era of the decline of Roman greatneſs, it is worthy of remark, that the wives of ſenators and citizens became clamorous for further indulgence in the articles of dreſs and perſonal ornaments. They beſieged the ſenate-houſe in a body, and exhibited all the frantic proceedings of an intemperate mob. To read the harangues of Roman ſtateſmen on this occaſion, it would be imagined that Hannibal was at the gates, and that the exiſtence of Rome was expoſed to the moſt critical and imminent hazard. They foreſaw in

the unreſerved and unbridled paſſions of their women for the vanities of attire, the future growth of luxury, of vice, of contempt for the domeſtic virtues, of vain diſſipation, and the long train of evils that inevitably attend on the habits of luxury, when once they take root in a well-ordered and well-conſtituted ſtate. Their juſt apprehenſions, and well grounded alarms, were unfortunately realiſed in the ſubſequent periods of their hiſtory: the overthrow of liberty in the civil wars was the well merited fruit of general luxury, and of courſe of the profligacy of the females. Salluſt will let us into the ſecrets of thoſe times, if we peruſe him with attention; and it is well known, that the great conqueror and uſurper that overthrew the liberties of his country, was tempted to the invaſion of Britain, by the hopes of diſcovering in the Britiſh ſeas the largeſt and moſt beautiful pearls to gratify the rapacity of his female favourites, who we may obſerve, *en paſſant*, were matrons and ladies of quality belonging to the moſt illuſtrious Roman families. The private hiſtory of his great ſucceſſor, who has been unjuſtly celebrated as the patron of letters and the fine arts, will furniſh inſtances of the moſt flagitious conduct in women of the firſt rank. A correct idea of their manners may be obtained from the pages of Horace and of Suetonius. In ſhort, depravity and vice might be ſuppoſed to have reached their acmè during this period, were we not correctly acquainted with the later enormities of Roman corruption and decay; were not the pages of their poets and hiſtorians polluted with the unbluſhing and unreſerved abominations and lewdneſſes of the empreſſes, and other females in the moſt conſpicuous ranks of the Roman nobility, and the more opulent order of citizens:

> Hoc fonte derivata clades,
> In patriam populumque fluxit.
>
> HORACE.

It was during the reign of this ſhameleſs depravity, that modes of dreſs took place, which bear a ſtriking analogy to the faſhions of the preſent times. Nothing would ſuit the taſte of the Roman ladies, but ſilk veſts of the fineſt and moſt pellucid textures, which exhibited every turn and ſhape of their form, and according to the happy expreſſion of the hiſtorian that deſcribes them, were calculated to '*exprimere artus*,' that is, to diſplay the mould and preſſure of their perſons and their limbs. It is needleſs, and would, perhaps, be rather invidious, to purſue the parallel any further; we may therefore content ourſelves with obſerving, that the cloſeſt intimacy exiſts between the morals, the deportment, and external ornaments of our females, and the dignity, proſperity, and well-being of our country. Viewing matters in this light, as we may be permitted to do, with good reaſon, we ſhould have the candour to confeſs that an illuſtrious prelate, who endeavoured to check the licentiouſneſs of certain exhibitions, was guided by the pureſt motives of patriotiſm and virtue. Nor muſt we forget the virtuous exertions of other noble characters to ſuppreſs the alarming progreſs of adultery. It is a ſymptom of the moſt rooted depravity, that their honeſt endeavours were made a ſubject of ridicule, or, what, is worſe, of ſerious oppoſition from perſons of the higheſt rank. Men who look deeper into the cauſes and conſequences of human actions, lament with heartfelt anguiſh the decay of virtuous ſentiments, and of modeſt demeanour in thoſe whom nature herſelf ſeems to have inſtructed in a diffident and timid averſion from crimes and guilt, and whom men muſt previouſly inſtigate and encourage before they overleap the boundaries of virtue. It is ſomewhat remarkable, that the two moſt renowned republics of antiquity took for their preſiding and protecting divinities, the allegorical figures of female virtues and accompliſhments. Minerva, the patroneſs of Wiſdom and Eloquence, and the

arts, was the tutelary divinity of the Athenian republic, and Juno, the goddeſs of marriage and of empire, the model of matrons, the pattern of dignified chaſtity and virtue, preſided over the deſtiny of the mighty republic of Rome. Although fictitious and allegorical repreſentations, we may read in their fate the ſubſequent deſtiny of their votaries. By ſwerving from the virtues which raiſed them to the divine authority, in the opinion of their reſpective nations, the one became a doating, triſling, ridiculous old maid, the other a vile, abandoned courtezan, addicted to the loweſt and moſt nauſeous exceſs of lewdneſs and debauchery.

Such will be the fate of other powerful and extenſive ſtates:—It is written and recorded in the volume of Human Nature, and nothing ſhort of omnipotence can arreſt the natural progreſs of the fatality of human affairs. It is not leſs in the ſpirit of poetry, than of prophecy, and of philoſophy and profound and accurate obſervation, that one of the moſt correct, elegant, and pathetic of our poets, has typified the decay and downfall of a mighty empire, under the allegorical repreſentation of a beautiful and virtuous female *.

As ſome fair female, *unadorn'd* and *plain*,
Secure to pleaſe, while youth *confirms her reign*,
Slight every borrow'd charm that dreſs ſupplies,
Nor ſhares with art the triumph of her eyes;
But when thoſe charms are paſt (for charms are frail)
When Time advances, and when lovers fail,
She then ſhines forth, ſolicitous to bleſs,
In all the glaring *impotence of dreſs*.
Thus fares the *land*, by luxury betray'd,
In *Nature's ſimpleſt* charms *at firſt array'd*;
But verging to decline, its ſplendours riſe,
Its *viſta* ſtrike, its palaces ſurpriſe,—&c.

* It has not been remarked by any critic, that Goldſmith, in the elucidation of his ſubject, adapts the moſt beautiful and appoſite ſimilies, and thoſe that bear the cloſeſt affinity to the prominent matter and obvious topics of the queſtion or ſubject, which forms the baſis of his poems. Speaking of the fluctuating nature of commerce, he ſays:

—till, more *unſteady than the ſouthern gale*,
Commerce on other ſhores *diſplay'd her ſail*.

The power acquired by commerce, he appoſitely compare to the moles and dykes raiſed by the induſtrious natives of Holland:

——— Trade's *proud empire* haſtes to *ſwift decay*,
As ocean ſweeps the *labour'd mole* away;
While *ſelf dependent power* can time defy,
As *rocks* reſiſt the billows and the ſky.

His own rambles and travels in ſearch of happineſs, he likens, with the moſt exquiſite propriety, to the Circle,

——— Which, bounding earth and ſkies,
Allure from far, yet, as I follow, flies.

His neglected ſtate, in ſuch a ſituation, is

——— Like yon *neglected* ſhrub, at *random caſt*,
That ſhades the ſteep, and *ſighs at every blaſt*.

The Dutch are deſcribed in their patient ſervitude:

Dull as their lakes, that ſlumber in the ſtorm.

The virtuous miniſter of religion, whoſe hopes lay in futurity, he compares to

Some tall cliff, that lifts its *awful form*,
Swells from the vale, and midway leaves the ſtorm;
Though round its *breaſt* the *rolling clouds are ſpread*,
Eternal ſunſhine ſettles on its *head*.

REFLECTIONS *on the* CAUSES *of the* INCREASE *and* DECREASE *of* WEALTH.

[From the 'Principes d'Œconomie Politique;' a Prize Diſſertation, by N. F. Canard, late Profeſſor of Mathematics in the Central School of Moulins.

The following Extracts are taken from a Work of high Repute on the Continent, the Author of which was rewarded with the Prize adjudged by the National Inſtitute *of* France, *for the beſt Treatiſe on the Subject of political Economy. As the Work has not been tranſlated for the Benefit of the Engliſh Public, we have thought it might not be diſagreeable to our Readers, and the numerous Admirers of* Adam Smith, *to be preſented with a few Paſſages from this celebrated Treatiſe, the Author of which is conſidered, by the beſt Judges, as one of the ableſt and moſt ſucceſsful Followers of our immortal Countryman.*

WEALTH is the accumulation of that portion of ſuperfluous labour which has been withdrawn from conſumption, and from which every deſcription of property takes its riſe. It is therefore the reſult of the ſurplus of labour, above the demand of general conſumption. In order to diſcover how far this exceſs of labour may be extended, and with what conſequences it may be attended, it is neceſſary to inveſtigate the original motives which lead to labour and conſumption. Such men as have acquired the means of ſatisfying the neceſſities of animal life, and who ſtill continue to labour, are directed by views of the acquiſition of riches or reputation. It appears evident, that he who labours for the purpoſes of fame or reputation, is ſtimulated by the deſire of acquiring eſteem. But the queſtion is, to diſcover the prevailing motive and ultimate views of the active man, who employs his induſtry in order to amaſs riches. It is only by analyſing the nature of the enjoyment which they procure, that we can arrive at the real principle, which prompts the deſire of acquiring fortune and independence. All the enjoyments which attend riches, and which are not to be reckoned among the neceſſaries of life, are precluded in the general idea of luxury, and may be claſſed in two different branches; firſt, that of enjoyments in general, which are not abſolutely the reſult of wants and neceſſities, but ſeem only a continuation and extenſion of them, which have for their object the gratification of our appetites, by procuring for us a variety of agreeable ſenſations. This claſs may be ſtyled with propriety the claſs of ſenſual luxury; and the other claſs, which is cloſely connected with, and often confounded with the firſt, originates only in the deſire of ſhow and oſtentation. This ſpecies of luxury, conſiderably more extenſive than the former, touches on one ſide the neceſſities of the poor man; in every other rank in ſociety, it is the miſtreſs and attendant of ſenſual luxury, and the man of opulence is totally influenced by it. What is the cauſe that gives ſo exorbitant a price for thoſe rare jewels and diamonds, with which opulence delights to be decked out. Is it becauſe they flatter agreeably our eye ſight, by the beauty and brilliancy of their luſtre? No, this feeble enjoyment has no connection with their value; it is only becauſe they have the property of altering the wealth of the perſons who wear them. Every object of luxury is ſimilar; however pleaſing they may be as objects of ſenſual gratification, it is nothing in compariſon with the delight ariſing from oſtentation. All the ornaments which decorate the apartments of the rich man, the gildings

and ſculptures which art diſtributes with ſo much taſte for the delight of our eyes, are only ſo many magic characters, which in every ſpot convey this inſcription: *admire my wealth and good fortune.* In every claſs, the luxury of oſtentation has engraved theſe characters on every thing, which is ſubſervient to the convenience and elegance of private life. This luxury decks with a narrow border of lace the head-dreſs of the peaſant's daughter, and gives to every article of dreſs, colours and ornaments foreign to the original ſubſtance. In ſhort, if we except thoſe infirm or depraved creatures, who exiſt by begging, what conſtitutes the property of the pooreſt perſon among the claſs of labourers, preſents almoſt generally ſome traces of this inſcription: and *I too am rich enough to poſſeſs ſome articles, which are not altogether neceſſary for my ſubſiſtence.*

The luxury of oſtentation prevails over the ſenſual luxury of the wealthy man, and gives room to the ſplendour of expence; even thoſe objects, which from their nature ſeem only to flatter the ſenſes, become in their turn the means of frivolous expenditure. Conſider, for example, a ſumptuous entertainment given by a man of fortune; retrench in imagination every thing that ſerves only to convey an idea of the opulence of the entertainer, and leave nothing on the table but what is intended to gratify the ſenſes of that individual; on this ſuppoſition, what would remain. Let us, in fine, caſt a general look on the expences which men give into after their ordinary wants are ſatisfied, and we ſhall ſee that they are all prompted by the deſire of appearing rich; therefore the great moving principle which impels men to the acquiſition of riches, is the deſire of making a diſplay of their wealth. The queſtion now is, what is the foundation of this violent deſire of appearing to be rich? I ſhall endeavour to account for it. According to the well regulated courſe of affairs, a man is ſuppoſed to be rich in proportion to the ſervices he may have rendered to ſociety, and the fewer demands he had made on its aid; in this view his wealth is a ſort of proof, or at leaſt a preſumption of his underſtanding, his activity and economy, &c. If he has acquired his fortune by himſelf, or derives it from his anceſtors, it ſuppoſes the ſame qualification in his predeceſſors, the luſtre of which is reflected on their deſcendants. Moreover, in the caſe of the latter, wealth is an indication of a more cultivated education, a greater averſion to committing any of thoſe blame-worthy actions which are produced by poverty; more fitneſs and ability to fulfil thoſe functions, which require confidence and diſintereſtedneſs; in ſhort, whatever may be the cauſe, it is plain that mankind have always agreed to laviſh on the poſſeſſors of riches a reſpect and conſideration proportioned to the ſuppoſed amount of their wealth. It appears then, that it is this conſideration that is the principal object of mankind in the purſuit of wealth.

For inſtance, a merchant worth 100,000l. does not ſtand in need of all his fortune, in order to enjoy the indulgences and ſenſual pleaſures which men ſo eagerly endeavour to attain. That is not the object of his wiſhes, but he ſees other merchants richer than himſelf; he wiſhes to ſurpaſs them, and continues his exertions, and the ſame is the caſe with every other deſcription of men. The emulation or mutual deſire of ſurpaſſing each other, is the *primum mobile* of all the accumulated maſs of labour which man in civil ſociety has annexed to his phyſical exiſtence. Man, in the ſavage ſtate, feels not this animated motive to toil and exertion; he labours only to ſatisfy his natural wants, and paſſes the reſt of his time in a ſtate of torpor and inactivity. This general emulation is divided into two diſtinct branches; the emulation of labour, and the emulation of expence. The former is the actuating principle of all thoſe men, who hav-

ing not as yet acquired any ſhare of ſuperfluous labour, endeavour to ſurpaſs each other by their activity, ability, economy, and every other quality, which tends to accumulate a ſtock of diſpoſable labour, or of riches. The latter is a natural conſequence of the former. Man (I conſider in this ſubject mankind in a ſtate of perpetuity) employs his labour and economy with the hope of enjoying his acquiſition at ſome future period. The conſideration attached to wealth is his principal incentive, expence is therefore the terminating point of labour. Man arrives ſooner or later at the period of his toils, and ceaſes to acquire a further acceſſion of wealth; at that period it is the emulation of expence which prevails in that claſs of individuals. Each of them, from the natural deſire of ſurpaſſing his competitors, endeavours to make the moſt ſtriking diſplay of his wealth, in order to attract a larger ſhare of that conſideration, which is always the conſtant attendant on overgrown fortunes.

The emulation of labour is ſuſceptible of a vaſt variety of degrees, and is always proportioned to that force or ability which is found in man, and which I denominate *energy*. It is that quality which improves the natural faculties of men: it is the germ of courage in the ſoldier, of genius in the artiſt and the man of letters, of virtue in the magiſtrate, and of activity in the induſtrious man. Thoſe nations which have been moſt diſtinguiſhed for the ſplendour of their warlike atchievements, are the ſame who have been the moſt renowned for the cultivation of the ſciences, of arts, and of commerce, when their energy has been employed in that direction. I ſhall not inquire at preſent whether it be more advantageous to a nation to direct its energy to the profeſſion of arms, or commerce, and the fine arts, as ſuch a queſtion is foreign to the ſubject which I am now diſcuſſing. I am now conſidering mankind under the point of view of their inceſſant application and repetition of labour; and it is my preſent purpoſe to analyſe the different periods which ſucceed each other in the various ſubdiviſions and different departments of induſtry.

The activity of the induſtrious man is not the only cauſe of the accumulation of wealth; becauſe, ſhould the deſire of poſſeſſing the objects of his ambition be in conſtant equilibrium with his activity, the actual ſtate of thieves would continue the ſame without any alteration for the better; and if, from the firſt origin of ſociety, mankind had regularly expended the total produce of their labour, it would have been impoſſible to create any accumulation of wealth. It is therefore the principle of economy, which by hoarding the ſurplus of labour, has created and augmented the different ſources of property, that has laid the foundation of wealth, and by the ſame reaſon has been the generating cauſe of the gradual improvement of the human ſpecies. For if we ſtrike off in idea every thing which has been acquired by man, during the periods of cultivation, and the product of the ſurplus of labour, accumulating by the repeated efforts of induſtry and economy, what will remain, but man in the ſavage ſtate, ſurrounded by the unwrought and miſhapen productions of nature.

Let us ſuppoſe an active, energetic nation, tranſported to a raw ſoil, where every ſource of property muſt be produced and created. This order of things compels the adventurers to recur to labour and economy, as the only means of acquiring any fixed property in the country. As the clearing of lands in a waſte ſoil, is in ſuch a ſtate of things, the moſt natural, the moſt productive, and the eaſieſt of all plans of employing capital; it is to the cultivation of land, that the firſt diſpoſable labour will be applied, and the continual ſucceſſion of new lands will facilitate population, which will meet with no obſtacle in its progreſs. The ſimple arts that are connected with agriculture, ſpread

themſelves with equal facility over the country. Thus, an increaſe and ſubdiviſion of income takes place, the money that circulates and keeps alive the maſs of labour muſt naturally become ſcarce, by paſſing through ſuch a number of different channels, which ſpring up on every ſide, and which increaſe the demand and competition for ſpecie. The rate of intereſt then becomes exceſſive, and paper-money muſt be multiplied in order to provide a currency, to ſupply the place of the precious metals. All other ſpecies of property will follow the level of money, and will give riſe to a profit in proportion to the capital, which has been employed in their production. In ſuch a country, the exceſſive gain attached to all ſorts of induſtrious occupations will tend more and more to multiply them; there will be, therefore, a ſtrong competition for the purchaſe of labour, and particularly natural labour: on the other hand, the labour of luxury will be at a low rate, comparatively with the other deſcription. In this increaſing nation, ſuch will be the natural order of things. If we compare it with nations further advanced in arts and commerce, it will be found to be a poor nation, where every thing will be at an inferior price. The cheapneſs of land, and the high rate of profit, will induce many capitaliſts to tranſport their funds thither to embark in projects of manufactures and commerce. In this ſtate, the ſcarcity of gold and ſilver will produce an influx of theſe metals, and the inferior price of every neceſſary of life will facilitate the efflux of the produce of labour, and of courſe a flow of ſpecie into the interior of the country. The application of this principle may be exemplified in the hiſtory of the improvement and wealth of North America, of Holland, and of every induſtrious people, which having been originally poor, ended their career by becoming wealthy and powerful nations.

It is evident, that the wealth of a nation cannot increaſe, unleſs the individuals who compoſe it are excited by mutual emulation to ſurpaſs each other in induſtry and economy; and it follows, that the emulation of labour is the principle of the increaſing opulence of a people. Agriculture has formed the baſis of the improvement and increaſing opulence of the nation, and the arts, of the greateſt neceſſity and demand, meet with encouragement from a growing population: this progreſs is further ſupported by manufactures, commerce, and the fine arts. From commerce, the colony derives annually a balance of trade, proportioned to its activity and its induſtrious economy; and this balance, which other nations muſt ultimately pay in money, introduces an influx of ſpecie into the country. In the mean time, this ſudden flow of wealth will not tend to raiſe the level of the circulating ſpecie; for as long as the nation ſhall continue to be active, laborious, economical, and mercantile, as long as the emulation of labour ſhall prevail, the price of things will not be raiſed by the influx of capital, becauſe individuals, in their capacity of buyers, will not pay a price that will ſhut their commodities out of the markets of Europe, and of the commercial world. The current price of merchandiſe muſt therefore be the check which confines the price of every deſcription of labour, and, by counteraction, the price of the proviſions, which feed the induſtrious workmen in all the branches of trade and commerce; it follows then, that the accumulation of capital will not have the immediate effect of raiſing the level of money. The ſurplus product muſt therefore be employed in ſome new career of buſineſs, either by creating new ſources of revenue, or adding to, and improving the old; in ſuch a ſtate, it is clear that the conflux of capital, and the competition of wealthy men, will naturally lower the intereſt of money. In this manner, Holland, before the revolution, exported the merchandiſe of every country, and engaged in the

carrying trade on eaſier terms than any other maritime power, while the intereſt of money was only at the rate of two per cent. in that country.

If capitaliſts might find the ſame facility in lending their money in other places, as well as their own country, or if they could apply their property to the improvement of other ſpecies of revenue out of their own territory, with as much eaſe as they can with the places within their reach, this ſuperfluity, or over abundance of wealth, would find its way into every quarter where the quantity is in ſmaller portions. But circumſtances will not admit of ſuch proceedings: the ſtrict confidence which the lenders of money require, makes it a matter of the utmoſt difficulty and hazard to engage in ſuch ſpeculations, and the ſame diſtruſt and delicacy is apparent in every attempt, in all the deſcriptions of property, whether fixed or transferrable. When a man employs his capital in the purchaſe or improvement of a poſſeſſion in the place of his abode, he has every means that can be imagined to enable him to draw the greateſt value from it: this facility diminiſhes in proportion to the diſtance of the object, and ſhould it be ſituate in a foreign country, the difficulty of recovering the value and produce of it, are ſometimes inſurmountable. An Engliſhman, for example, who lives in London, will be little inclined to purchaſe landed property in Sweden or Ruſſia; the difficulty of collecting his rent would counterbalance every other advantage or inducement which might tempt him to ſink his money in thoſe countries, rather than in London. The ſurplus capitals muſt, of courſe, be applied in preference to ſpeculations on that ſpecies of property which the proprietors ſhall find in their own countries.

In proportion, however, as money is amaſſed, and the competition of men of wealth increaſe, capital muſt ſeek a new direction in the invention of new manufactures, and in the extenſion of the different branches of commerce; a nation, in theſe circumſtances, applies to foreign commerce with the moſt diſtant countries, and adventures in the moſt dangerous ſpeculations. The abundance of capital invites from every quarter ſailors and mechanics of every deſcription; the nation becomes exceeding wealthy and populous, and extends its commerce on every ſide. Such is the preſent ſituation of England; the new capital, which the balance of trade annually produces, is employed in creating new ſources of induſtry, and new channels of circulation in the foundation of colonies, and in the extenſion of their induſtry over the whole face of the globe.

In the mean time, the mother country, or the central point of a ſtate ſo rich and extenſive, is likewiſe the ſpot where money moſt abounds, and which is conſtantly fed by the ſtill increaſing balance of trade; it is moreover the place where every object of capital is moſt overcharged with adventurers and ſpeculators. I muſt quote England again, for an inſtance of this kind. It is the country which, beyond any other in Europe, has carried agriculture to the higheſt perfection, and where manufactures are provided with the moſt complete machinery, and with every means of improvement and perfection. The Engliſh people, being covetous and induſtrious, are always inſtigated by the emulation of labour; the man of wealth in that country does not indulge his vanity by keeping a vaſt number of ſervants, or by the diſplay of grandeur and luxury, but by employing a great number of manufacturers, and dedicating his attention to the improvement of ſome branch of induſtry. The ſame ſpirit reigns in Holland, and has been the cauſe of the opulence of that country.

May we therefore ſay, that the wealth of a nation may be conſtantly on the increaſe? or is there a period beyond which it decays inſtead of increaſing? That queſtion I ſhall

now examine. In proportion as the balance of trade brings an influx of capital, the competition of the monied men, as we have before explained, ſinks the intereſt of money, and by a counteraction, every other ſpecies of income; becauſe, by their nature, all ſources of revenue have tendency to come to an equilibrium. Thus every object of capital becomes daily more productive abſolutely, and leſs productive relatively; that is to ſay, that the continual improvements they received, make them ſuſceptible of a larger produce; but the value of this produce, relative to the capital inveſted, is conſtantly diminiſhing. Moreover, the greater degree of perfection that any manufacture has received, the leſs ſuſceptible it is of further improvement, and attempts at future perfection are attended with conſiderable expence, and a conſtant dilapidation and decay of the original ſtock. It follows, that the zeal of improvement, and the ardour of experiment, will gradually cool, and become extinct; the accumulation of money will lower the rate of intereſt; the proſpect of profit of mercantile ſpeculations will vaniſh by degrees, and a proportional depreſſion of the emulation of induſtry will take place. But the emulation of expence becomes more general; the number of thoſe who ceaſe from their induſtry, and who wiſh to make a diſplay of their wealth, increaſes beyond any former proportion. The multitude of conſumers raiſes the price of every article, becauſe the ſellers profit by their competition, and the abundance of money in circulation; the more the price of labour is raiſed, the more foreign trade declines, and the more the number of adventurers in commerce and manufactures diminiſhes, and gives room to the increaſing multitude of inactive perſons, the greater will be the number of thoſe who will withdraw their capitals from productive labour, to live on the intereſt of their money. When arrived at a certain point, the emulation of expence prevails over the emulation of labour; then a taſte for grandeur and luxury takes the place of economy, of activity, and the ambition of enlarging and improving one's fortune. The induſtrious man of buſineſs is then looked upon as a being of an inferior order, and the emulation of expence forms a claſs of a higher rank, not compelled to have recourſe to any induſtrious occupation. This claſs, not being induced by the exigencies of trade to limit the price of commodities, enhances the value of every article by their competition, and annihilates the export trade with foreign nations. The ſurplus of capital, accumulated on every ſpecies of property, finds its way into circulation, and by raiſing the level of money, gives riſe to its efflux to other countries. During this period, other ſtates are riſing into importance, and being induſtrious and active from their poverty, ſupply the European markets with cheaper and more finiſhed manufactures, and the declining nation ſees its fabrics and its workſhops in decay. All kinds of property participate in the general declenſion; on every ſide, the multitude of workmen abounds, the extremities of every branch are filled with wretches, who hurt each other by their competition, and are rejected from every branch of trade. The extremities of the extenſive branch of natural labourers are filled with wretched creatures, who are ſwept off by hunger and diſtreſs, becauſe population is found to have increaſed out of proportion with the extent of commerce and the demand for labour: there are a few immenſe fortunes, an extenſive luxury, and a great ſhare of wretchedneſs in every quarter. If we compare the ſymptoms which indicate a riſing nation, with thoſe of a nation in decline, we ſhall ſee that they are diametrically oppoſite. 1. In an improving nation, the emulation of productive labour is in its full force. 2. The labour is in great demand, and competition raiſes it to a high price, while unpro-

ductive labour meets with little encouragement. 3. Every object on which capital is employed, is in a ſtate of progreſſive improvement. 4. Population continues to increaſe. 5. Money is ſcarce, the rate of intereſt is high, but with a tendency to decline. 6. The ſources of revenue have a great relative produce, and a ſmall abſolute one; however, they conſtantly tend to augment the latter, and to diminiſh the former. 7. The export trade is on the increaſe, and the courſe of ſpecie flows from without to the interior of the country.

On the contrary, in the declining nation: 1. The emulation of productive labour is at the verge of decay, and the emulation of expence in its greateſt force. 2. Productive labour being in little demand, is at a very low price; but unproductive labour, to ſatisfy the cravings of luxury, is in queſt, and at a very extravagant price. 3. The objects of diſpoſable capital are at a ſtand, and verge to decay. 4. Population declines. 5. Money is plentiful, and the rate of intereſt being low at the commencement of the national decay, has a conſtant tendency to riſe, becauſe the emulation of expence withdraws, for the purpoſes of luxury, the money requiſite for the preſervation of fixed capital. 6. At the commencement of decay, every ſpecies of capital has a large ſhare of abſolute produce, and a ſmall relative ſhare of the ſame, but the latter is in a ſtage of progreſſive augmentation, and the former in decay. 7. The active trade of exportation decreaſes, and ſinks into annihilation, and the courſe of ſpecie flows out of the country.

During this gradual decay of the declining country, there is a conſtant efflux of the precious metals, the emulation of expence neglecting the productive labour requiſite for the preſervation of capital, the latter waſtes by perceptible degrees, and the nation becomes poorer every day. This emulation of expence ſpreading through all claſſes, no individual thinks of amaſſing the product of productive labour, and from this circumſtance ariſes the taſte for ſhow, an averſion to labour, and moſt ridiculous vanity. Such is the actual ſtate of Spain, of Portugal, and other countries. Such will be ſoon the ſtate of England. That nation, having reached the pinnacle of greatneſs, approaches faſt to the period of its declenſion. We ſhall ſee hereafter what cauſe has been capable of retarding, and may ſtill retard the arrival of that epoch.

A declining nation, by growing conſtantly poorer, verges to a ſtate of inferiority and diſtreſs, which will firſt diminiſh, and then deſtroy the emulation of expence, and again give riſe to the emulation of labour; or, in other words, the ſucceſſive decay of a nation tends to bring forward a poor, active, and laborious generation, which will recommence the career of its former wealth and induſtry. Such would be the natural courſe of the changes introduced into different nations, did not wars and revolutions frequently invert this order.

According to the invariable deſtiny of human affairs, nothing is ſtationary in nature; every thing is in a ſtate of conſtant fluctuation. Theſe diverſities of activity and ſloth are not equally perceptible among all nations; they are chiefly to be diſtinguiſhed in thoſe ſtates which have been ſubject to ſudden ſtarts of greatneſs and proſperity.

This period of changes, which different nations undergo with reſpect to each other, is equally viſible in any one nation, with regard to the different individuals who compoſe it, conſidered with one another. Thoſe who are naturally active, and whoſe poverty makes them induſtrious and economical, conſume leſs than they produce; their wealth increaſes in proportion to their induſtry and care; but as they gradually become opulent, the neceſſity of induſtry and economy is diminiſhed, the emulation of ſuperfluous expence is inſenſibly introduced,

and they are eager to appear in a rank, where any further accumulation is conſidered uſeleſs. Thus, by conſidering the conſtant and never failing exiſtence of mankind, or rather only that of families in general, we may perceive that they are ſubject to the ſame periods of greatneſs and decay that nations are expoſed to. After having paſſed the different ſtages of improvement and opulence, the emulation of expence, and the averſion to labour, enervate and palſy their activity; the ſucceſſion of indulgences and enjoyments deſtroys their energy, and undermines inſenſibly the principle of life, which conſtitutes the vigour of the human frame. We may ſee an inſtance of the truth of this obſervation, particularly in opulent families, the individuals of which giving themſelves up without reſtraint to the gratification of their paſſions, deſtroy their health and fortune, and give birth only to feeble and ill organized beings. Families thus, in a ſtate of decrepitude, exhibit nothing but a few ruined, feeble, enervated individuals, who inſtead of renewing their ſpecies, make room for new families of greater vigour and promiſe. Theſe effects are without interruption, and in the natural courſe of things, as we behold in an ancient foreſt, untouched by the hand of man, the old oaks decaying and giving place to the young ſhoots that ſpring up near them.

Although many philoſophers allow the truth of this ſentiment, reſpecting the increaſe and decay of families, yet they deny the juſtice of its application to nations; they conſider every nation as compoſed of perſons of no property, and of others who abound in wealth, and of courſe that the emulation of labour and of expence, muſt conſtantly operate reſpectively in theſe diviſions. They maintain the general notion, that a nation at every period is an aſſemblage of different families, which are ſubject to their reſpective degrees of aggrandiſement or decay, in the ſame manner as it is an aſſemblage of individuals of every age and deſcription, who by conſtantly renewing their race, preſent always the ſame ſcene, though equally diverſified.

In order to reply to this ſuppoſition, it is neceſſary to diſtinguiſh the producing cauſes of the aggrandiſement and decay of families in a ſtate, from the cauſes which influence the riſe or downfall of nations in a maſs. Emulation, taken in a general ſenſe, is the ſpring of all our actions, which are not immediately prompted by neceſſity or by pleaſure. It is likewiſe emulation which induces a man to accumulate riches, and afterward to make a diſplay of them by his luxury; the latter emulation is the neceſſary conſequence of the emulation of labour, and forms the natural termination of it. Man is deſirous of improving his fortune, only with the view to procure the means of making a diſplay of his wealth in the end, and ſurpaſſing in his expences a greater number of individuals. It is for no purpoſe to prolong the emulation of labour; it has of neceſſity a ſettled period. When the induſtrious man has acquired the means of ſurpaſſing his rivals, by the ſplendour of his expence, he has no longer any inducement to enlarge his fortune. On the contrary, his ardour for expence is ſtronger than ever; it muſt therefore terminate at this point, otherwiſe his labour would be without any fixed object or end. But as long as I conſider individuals with reſpect to each other, nothing makes it abſolutely evident that any increaſe or decreaſe of wealth muſt reſult to the nation in general; for if all families muſt paſs this period, the poor families muſt be aggrandized at the expence of thoſe which have been ruined by the emulation of expence; and the natural conſequence muſt be a conſtant mixture of families increaſing or decaying, ſo that one ſhall be counterbalanced by the other, and with reſpect to the nation, the ſame maſs of wealth muſt be perpetually in exiſtence. I now come to the cauſes which influence the aggrandizement

or decline of nations relative to each other. And firſt, we muſt admit, as an acknowledged fact, that all men are not naturally gifted with the ſame energy; we muſt alſo acknowledge a truth, equally indiſputable, which is, that the mixture of individuals, with greater or leſs degrees of energy, is not the ſame in every nation; in other words, all nations are not equally energetic. Moreover, it is equally true, that the more energy nations poſſeſs, the more the individuals, or families which compoſe it, retard the period when the emulation of expence occupies the place of the emulation of labour; that is, the longer they are employed in induſtry, and the greater is the quantity of riches which they amaſs before they proceed to enjoy their wealth. On this hypotheſis, let us ſuppoſe any nation more energetic than its neighbours, the reſult will be that its ſource of revenue will be more cultivated, and of courſe more productive; its commerce will be more extenſive, and it will have the advantage over all the others, in ſelling the produce of its induſtry in the markets of the commercial world; it will have the balance of trade in its favour; its wealth will increaſe, and its capital accumulate; but it will accumulate to no purpoſe. As the activity of the nation induces it always to ſell to other nations, it muſt keep the level of its circulation on a par with its neighbours, money muſt abound more and more, the nation muſt reach the period of its declenſion, as we have demonſtrated before. Thus, from the ſuperior energy of a nation in its commerce with other countries, it follows naturally that its wealth muſt accumulate at the expence of the riches of its neighbours, and from this accumulation the decline takes its riſe. When ſeveral nations in the vicinity of each other differ little in point of energy, they then preſent ſeparately the diverſified ſcene of increaſing and decreaſing families; but they continue, with reſpect to each other, almoſt always in a ſtate of reciprocal ſimilarity. Such is the uniform picture which the maſs of nations preſents in hiſtory; and if one of them has a greater ſhare of energy, it will neceſſarily experience an elevation, proportioned to the ſurplus of that energy, and its depreſſion will, as a natural conſequence, enſue. In this manner, do the aggrandizement and decline of nations depend on their reſpective relations, and their difference in point of energy. The ſame order of things takes place when we conſider the energy of nations directed toward war. When ſeveral nations, which border on each other, are equal in ſtrength and energy, they preſerve a balance of power among themſelves; but ſhould one prevail over the others, it will end by abſorbing them; it will then form a powerful nation, which will in like manner ſink into decay, when it ſhall have no more enemies to ſubdue.

INGENIOUS GENEROSITY: AN ANECDOTE.

WHOEVER is born of a good family, and through the injuſtice of fortune is reduced to a low condition, deſerves compaſſion much more than other perſons in diſtreſs, as he is withheld from diſcovering his wants and aſking relief by the ſhame natural to thoſe in his ſphere of life; for ſuch perſons would rather prefer to languiſh under the ſeverity of poverty, and conceal it, than to ſeek relief by diſcloſing it, and receive aſſiſtance with reproof for the want they are in, which becomes an injury rather than a benefit. Therefore it is not enough to relieve them generouſly, but obſerving the dictates of tender pity, we ſhould do it in ſuch a manner that thoſe who receive the benefit, may not be compelled to bluſh at it; and to help them with ſuch delicacy, as not to ſhow that one even ſuſpects they ſtand in need of it. The worthy archbiſhop D'Apchon has furniſhed a noble example of ſuch becoming delicacy, on his acceſſion to the ſee of

Auch; as the following anecdote of his ingenious generosity will show, with what skill he could conceal his beneficent hand, to save those who were relieved by him the mortification of acknowledging the benefactions he bestowed upon them.

On his arrival at Auch, he heard that there were two ladies of an ancient and honorable family, who having survived their nearest relations, found themselves destitute, and compelled through poverty to live retired and concealed from the world; but who nevertheless were worthy and virtuous in all respects, and bore their misfortunes with resignation. Their hard lot excited his compassion, and with his usual skilful and ingenious beneficence he thought on the means of delivering them from their unmerited distress. To testify the great regard he had for them, he paid his first visit to them; thereby showing that he honoured and respected those ladies more than any other persons in the town. After the usual introductory compliments, he entered into a conversation with them, which, by a dexterous and unaffected manner, might confirm them in the opinion of the high esteem he had conceived for them. He then, as it were by chance, cast his eye on a picture they had, and praised it extremely, declaring that he would willingly give two thousand crowns for it, as no other picture had ever struck him so much: and if he had not feared that they were too much attached to it, he would have taken the liberty to beg of them to part with it at any price. The ladies replied, that they were too happy that his lordship had found any thing in their house worthy of his approbation, and they would think themselves highly honoured if he would accept it, without any consideration in return. The prelate thanked them in the politest and best manner, as feeling himself extremely obliged by their complaisance. As soon as he was returned to his palace, he sent for the picture; at the same time sending the two thousand crowns he had offered for it: and to do away every suspicion of its being a present he intended to make them, he ordered so many thanks to be repeated to them, that he induced them to think that they had conferred on him a very great favour.

By the ingenious generosity of the pious archbishop, the ladies were relieved, without being obliged to blush, and even without hardly being sensible of it; the worthy prelate preferring to be taken for a bad connoisseur (as the picture was really of little value) than to leave them exposed to want, or to fail in the delicacy due to their rank, by assisting them in a more direct way.

On the DISSEMINATION *of* PLANTS. *By Citizen* L. Reynier.

[From Decade Philosophique, No. 13. An. XI.]

THE history of vegetables affords some facts to which I think it my duty to call the attention of naturalists: they relate to the dissemination of plants, and to the means by which this is effected. I have already collected several observations on this subject in the dictionary of agriculture of L'Encyclopédie Méthodique, article Dissemination.

There are two natural means of reproduction: one of these is by the roots, which, spreading outward, form new stems round the mother plant; this reproduction is slow, and can only take place gradually and without intervals; the other is by the seeds, which being carried by the winds, or by the hooks with which they are provided, or by animals which swallow them, and afterward deposit them, unchanged, in their excrements, are removed to greater distances, though still within a limited circle. It is not therefore wonderful, to see a plant spring up in a spot, where the same

ſpecies is known to exiſt at no great diſtance; its introduction is in the claſs of poſſibilities.

But that which ought to excite our attention, is the production of a new vegetation in a place which has undergone ſome very great changes. In all caſes when the ſurface of a place has been altered either by the falling or removal of the earth, by opening roads through foreſts, or by draining marſhes, plants are ſure to be found in the following year, which did not exiſt there before, while the former ſpecies diſappear, except a few coſmopolites, if the expreſſion may be allowed, which, though they reappear, undergo a remarkable alteration (Dict d'Agr. de L'Encycl. meth. art. Climat) When a wood is grubbed up, the foreſt plants ceaſe to grow, and thoſe natural to tilled ground immediately germinate. Labat notices (ſee vol. 1, page 386) that, in his time, at the Antilles, as ſoon as the ground was cleared, its ſurface became covered with purſlane. In thoſe places where charcoal is made, in foreſts at a great diſtance from any habitation, I daily obſerve plants, different from thoſe which were formerly there, and which are natives either of dry paſtures or cultivated lands, ſuch as the (vergerette) of Canada, the annual veronicas, &c. Foſter, in his voyages with Cook, took notice of ſeveral iſlets in the middle of the ſea, ſimply rocks of coral, on which the firſt rudiments of vegetation were forming. In the low valleys of the downs of Holland, I have gathered a ſatyrion and an ophrys, natives of the ſummits of the Alps and the plains of Spitzbergen (Satyrium viride, L. Ophrys monorchis, L.) But theſe downs, according to the obſervations of citizen Decandolle, (Ann, d'Agr. T. XIII, page 372) are not of very ancient origin. How is the introduction of theſe two plants, which are naturally provided with very limited means of multiplication, to be accounted for? I have expreſſed a wiſh in the Encyclopedie, that the new iſlands formed by volcanos, and particularly thoſe near Santorini ſhould be examined. One of our moſt accurate obſervers is on the point of viſiting the latter, (See d'Olivier, T. II, p. 238.) The new one produced by the eruption of 1707 to 1711, does not yet ſhow any appearance of vegetation, the air is ſtill mephitic; that which aroſe in 1573, has ſome traces of vegetation, particularly ſome graſſes, and a ſmall fig-tree; the latter may have been depoſited by ſome bird, but by what means were the graſſes conveyed?

It is true that ſeeds which are buried to a certain depth will be preſerved for a great length of time, and being afterward ſubmitted by culture to the action of the light and water, will germinate. But is it to be preſumed, that the ſeeds of purſlane were preſerved in the earth of the Antilles, during the many ages the foreſts had endured before they were deſtroyed? Is it probable that, in the foreſt of Gaul, whoſe antiquity is well aſcertained, the ſeeds of thoſe plants, which appeared after they were rooted up, or after placing a charcoal furnace in them, ſhould have been preſerved found from before the exiſtence of the foreſts? The diſſemination of plants has neceſſary limits; beyond theſe, we muſt have recourſe to other explanations.

Laſtly, the plants of the claſs cryptogamia, and particularly fungi, whoſe form is conſtantly determined by the nature of the ſubſtance on which they grow, and is conſtantly the ſame in ſimilar circumſtances, although they do not appear at ſtated ſeaſons like other vegetables, alſo preſent new facts. It is not long ſince citizen Ventenat obſerved a boleta of a peculiar new ſhape, which was produced on a human body. I have noticed the clavaria, which is conſtantly formed on the cryſalides of caterpillars (Journal de Phyſ. Année. 1787); others grow on thoſe fruits which have a woody covering; ſuch as are formed on the fragments of fir, are not the ſame as thoſe which grow on the wood of the oak. The huſk of the nutmeg pro-

duces a fungus peculiar to itſelf, (Ancienne Encycl. art. Muſcade.) Laſtly, the fungi which are formed on the wooden props of mines, cellars, &c. are not the ſame as thoſe produced by the ſame woods when they decay in the open air. It is difficult to conceive the diſſemination of ſeeds from one mine to another, particularly to thoſe which are opened in ſituations where no mines had exiſted before; nevertheleſs I have found all thoſe which I have examined in different countries to poſſeſs very nearly the ſame form.

All theſe conſiderations may induce us to preſume, that nature is daily exerciſing the ſame powers which ſhe poſſeſſed at the creation, and it would be intereſting to examine the cauſes and aſcertain the means of execution; but this can only be the conſequence of long and diverſified inveſtigations, carried on by a great number of obſervers.

SKETCH OF THE GENERAL HISTORY OF MINING.

IT gratifies the curioſity, and proves ſufficiently amuſing, to trace the origin and delineate the progreſs of any thing which occupies our thoughts or engages our attention; but when ſuch an inquiry is connected with any important art or ſcience, it ſurely muſt be more worthy the proſecution, as being calculated to afford ſome uſeful information as well as agreeable entertainment. Such are the effects that ſeem likely to reſult from the hiſtory of the riſe and progreſs of the art of mining; and it is hoped that the reader may meet at leaſt with the latter of theſe effects in this humble attempt to collect into a ſhort compaſs what may perhaps convey ſome general idea of the antiquity of the art of working mines, and its gradual advancement to its preſent dignified and important ſtation.

When we conſider the many improvements and important diſcoveries that have been made in chymiſtry within theſe few years, and compare the increaſe of chymical knowledge in the preſent age with that of former periods, it may perhaps be thought that we cannot receive any advantages from old authors, and that hiſtories of this kind ſcarcely deſerve notice, becauſe they are not abſolutely neceſſary to the knowledge of mining, nor to the juſt performance of the ſeveral operations belonging to it. Yet, as nothing is more intereſting to an artiſt than the riſe and fate of his art, and nothing more uſeful to him than the labours and experience of his predeceſſors, it appears incumbent upon us to receive with acknowledgment, and ſtudy with attention, the works of thoſe wiſe and enlightened men in the middle ages who directed their attention to the improvement of the arts, and, being free from the prejudices of hoſtile ſects and attached to the love of truth, contemplated with ſteady zeal the operations and productions of nature, and deſcribed appearances as they exiſted, without any mixture of theory or hypotheſis.

The art of diſcovering metals in the mine, and rendering them fit for uſe by chymical proceſſes, is of the moſt remote antiquity. Moſes, the oldeſt of all authors, mentions the uſe of braſs and iron, which could only have ariſen from ſome acquaintance with the metallurgic art; and this account is confirmed by the moſt ancient hiſtorians and fabuliſts. Diodorus Siculus relates that the Egyptians adored Vulcan as a god, and eſteemed him the firſt inventor of all arts and operations relating to metals; and all the profane authors coincide in this belief of Vulcan being the firſt inventor of the uſe of metals, and that in the earlieſt ages of the world. Greece, the firſt enlightened nation of Europe, received the rudiments of her arts and knowledge from Aſia and Egypt, and probably tranſmitted her knowledge of working mines to the Romans. The ancient Greeks and Romans were not deficient in the mathematical parts

Engine for blowing up the Stumps of Trees.

Fig. 1.

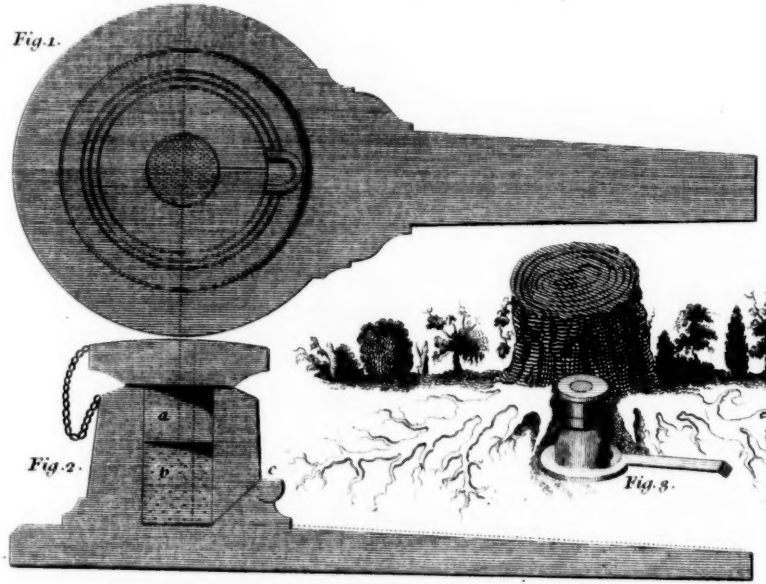

Fig. 2.

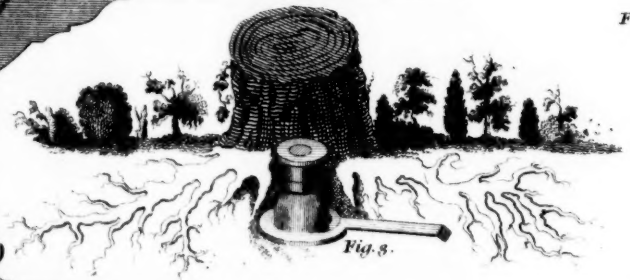

Fig. 3.

Instrument for breaking up Logs of Wood

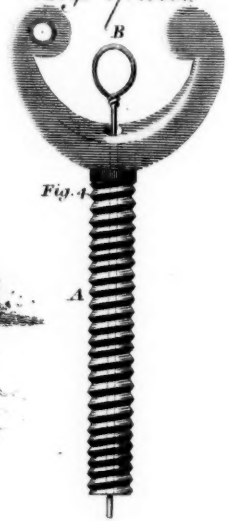

Fig. 4.

of mining, as ſome of their ſubterraneous works ſtill remain objects of admiration; and we may conclude from their accounts that they were good metallurgiſts and ſmelters, though they have left but few traditional practices and proceſſes, and theſe vague and not to be depended upon.

It ſeems probable that mines were objects of attention and inquiry among the Romans, as we find that the hiſtorian Tacitus, in his account of Germany, remarks that the inhabitants were not acquainted with their preſent valuable mines of gold, ſilver, &c. but doubts whether treaſures might not be diſcovered upon ſearching for them. 'Argentum et aurum propitii an irati Dei negaverint, dubito. Nec tameu affirmaverim nullam Germaniæ venam argentum aurumve gignere. Quis enim ſcrutatus eſt? Poſſeſſione et uſu haud perinde afficiuntur. (De moribus German.)

And it ſeems probable alſo that the Romans were acquainted with the proceſſes of digging, ſeparating, and purifying, metals; as the mines in Tranſylvania are generally ſuppoſed to be Roman works; and ſome mines on the Rhine and the Danube, in Lorrain, Alſace, Suevia, and Noricum, appear to have been worked in the decline of the ancient Roman empire.

After the deſtruction of the weſtern empire, when all learning, books, arts, and ſciences, were overwhelmed in the general wreck, we have no account of any mineralogical purſuits until the middle of the tenth century, when the mines in the Rammelſburg, near Goſlar were probably conducted upon traditional proceſſes either Roman or German; and we may ſuppoſe the knowledge of the Germans was not conſiderable if we judge from their operations, which, on account of the irony and zincous refractory mixtures, were various, compound, and tedious. The commencement of the ſixteenth century may be looked upon as one of the moſt remarkable and ſplendid epochs in the annal of mining, as well as in the annals of the world. Arts and ſciences then began to be proſecuted with ardour and ſucceſs, and from this era the productions of nature were ſtudied and unfolded to man. The traditional and empirical ſcience of metals now gave way to the ſcientifical principles of chymiſtry, which were derived from the Arabians.

Agricola was the firſt of the learned writers on this ſubject; and for his extraordinary learning and practical erudition in his treatiſes 'De Re Metallicâ et de Re Foſſilium,' he is juſtly entitled to the firſt place among the chymical metallurgiſts who have ſince appeared.

H. R.

DESCRIPTION *of a* MACHINE *for blowing up the* STUMPS *of* TREES.

By Cit. SAINT VICTOR, *Member of the Society of Agriculture, for the Department of* Seine. *Illuſtrated by Engravings.*

[From Sonini's Bibliotheque Phyſ. Oeconomique, No. 1.]

EVERY cultivator is well aware how detrimental the ſtumps of trees are that remain in the ground, which, inſtead of being rooted up at the time they were cut down, have been ſawed off cloſe to the ſtump, to ſave the expence of digging them out of the earth.

In an eſtate in Savoy, I was ſubjected to theſe inconveniences, from the avarice of the proprietor who had felled a great number of large trees, and ſawed them off cloſe to the roots; theſe were oaks, walnuts, and cheſtnuts, which grew in the meadows and ploughed grounds, and he diſpoſed of them as timber in planks and firewood, without taking any care to have them rooted up at the ſame time, which would have been then more

eaſy, by the common practice of uſing the trunk as a lever.

When I came into poſſeſſion of this eſtate, I foreſaw that I could by no means avoid rooting up a great number of ſtumps that were very injurious to every kind of cultivation; and to avoid the long, troubleſome, and expenſive labour of digging great trenches, which are uſually required to be made, in order to bring up the ſort of roots, I thought I might employ the force of gunpowder. This attempt perfectly ſucceeded, by means of a little machine of iron I had forged, of which I here join a plan, ſection, and perſpective view, which ſhows the manner of placing it beneath the ſtump *.

Deſcription of the Machine.

It conſiſts of a bar of forged iron, about two feet eight inches long, one inch thick toward the handle, and of two inches toward the breech or platform.

The platform, which is circular, is fourteen inches in diameter.

This platform ſerves as the baſe of the chamber, or furnace of the mine, which is three inches in diameter, and three inches eight lines in the length of its bore.

The ſtopper or tampion which ſerves as a plug to the mine, is of the ſame diameter, to enter within after a ſlight paper or wadding. It is attached by a chain to the gun or mortar, which laſt is eight inches in diameter.

About two inches above is added a ſmall touch-hole and pan. The hole is directed in an angle of 45 degrees, and is primed with powder to communicate with the charge with which the chamber is filled up to the ſtopper.

This engine may be caſt even with more facility in braſs or bronze, and in this caſe, it muſt be a little thicker in all its dimenſions, in order to afford a reſiſtance equal to that of the forged iron.

Uſe of the Machine.

When the machine is charged with powder, a ſmall excavation is made with a pickax, in the center of the ſtump. The machine is then placed in it, ſo that the plug immediately touches the wood. Care muſt be taken to fill all the vacancies, either with ſtones, or pieces of iron or wood, more eſpecially beneath the platform of the machine, in order that the exploſion of the powder may have its full effect on the ſtump, of which the principal roots ſhould firſt be cut, if any appear on the ſurface of the ground near the ſtump that is to be eradicated.

When the machine is firmly fixed in its place, the priming is put into the pan, and a ſlow match applied, the length of which muſt be ſufficient to allow time to retire to a proper diſtance from the exploſion.

By inſpection of the plan and ſection (ſee the plate) every one will perceive the utility of this ſimple machine, and it may eaſily be made by any intelligent ſmith.

Fig. 1. Plan of the machine, about two feet eight inches long.

Fig. 2. Section of the machine, ten inches high, comprehending the plug. *a*. The plug with its cap faſtened to the chain. *b*. The chamber for the powder. *c*. The touch-hole.

Fig. 3. A view of the machine placed under the ſtump of a tree.

* The uſe of this ingenious machine ought not to be confined merely to the ſtumps of trees in our fields. Licentiouſneſs and avarice within the laſt five years, have deprived our country of a quantity of woods and thickets, and degraded by immenſe fellings, our nobleſt foreſts, the incalculable ſource of riches for the preſent, and hope for future time. Whether theſe ſpaces thus impoveriſhed be converted into arable ground or paſture, or whether the imperious neceſſity or claims of poſterity ſhould require that they ſhould again be planted with trees, the invention of cit. St. Victor, will be a moſt uſeful application to eradicate from the ground thoſe roots which would deprive us of a part of its product. E.

Description *of an* Instrument *for breaking up* Logs *of* Wood *for the Purpoſe of* Fuel, *by blaſting them with* Gunpowder. *By Mr.* Richard Knight, *Ironmonger, Foſter-lane, Cheapſide.*

Illuſtrated by an Engraving *.

[From the Tranſactions of the Society of Arts, &c vol. 20.]

I HAVE frequently obſerved the great difficulty, labour, and loſs of time, experienced in breaking up logs of wood, particularly for the purpoſe of fuel; ſuch as the ſtumps and roots of large trees, which remain after the felling of timber, many of which, eſpecially ſuch as conſiſt of the harder and more knotty kind, as oaks, elms, yews, &c. are frequently left to rot in the ground, in order to avoid the neceſſary expence of breaking them to pieces in the common way, which is generally effected by the ax, and driving a ſucceſſion of iron wedges with a ſledge hammer; a laborious and tedious proceſs. Sometimes gunpowder is uſed, by ſetting a blaſt in a ſimilar way to that in mines or quarries. This method, though leſs laborious than the former, is tedious, is attended with ſeveral difficulties, and requires conſiderable experience and dexterity, or the plug will be more frequently blown out than the block rent by the exploſion. With a view, therefore, to obviate theſe difficulties, I have conſtructed an inſtrument. The ſimplicity of its conſtruction and application is ſuch as almoſt to preclude an idea of its originality; but as it has hitherto appeared entirely new to all my acquaintance, and as I do not know that any thing of the kind has ever before been preſented to the public, I am induced to think it may not be unacceptable.

Deſcription of the Inſtrument. See the plate, page 281, fig. 4.

The inſtrument conſiſts ſimply of a ſcrew A, with a ſmall hole drilled through its centre. The head of the ſcrew is formed into two ſtrong horns, for the more ready admiſſion of a lever by which it is to be turned. B, repreſents a wire, for the purpoſe of occaſionally clearing the touch-hole previous to the introduction of the quick-match.

The lever uſed to wind the ſcrew into the wood, may afterward be faſtened with a leather thong to the ſcrew, to prevent its being loſt, a circumſtance which does not often occur; for in all my experiments, when the wood has been tolerably ſound, I have always found the ſcrew left fixed in one ſide of the divided maſs.

A roll of twine is to be ſteeped in a ſolution of nitre, for the purpoſe of a quick-match, or train, to diſcharge the powder, by thruſting a piece thereof down the touch-hole after taking out the wire B.

When a block of wood is to be broken, a hole is to be bored with an auger, of a proper width and depth, and a charge of gunpowder introduced. The ſcrew is to be turned into the hole till it nearly touches the powder; a quick-match is then to be put down the touch hole till it reaches the charge. The piece of quick-match is about eighteen inches in length, which affords the operator an opportunity of retiring, after lighting it, to a place of ſafety.

The firſt that was made was for J. Lloyd, eſq. of St. Aſaph, the late member for Flint, who, having a great quantity of timber on his eſtate, conſiders it as a great acquiſition; and at Overton Hall, laſt ſummer, ſpoke ſo favorably of it, in my preſence, to ſir Joſeph Banks, that he immediately ſent for his ſmith, and requeſted I would give him the neceſſary inſtructions for making one; but as I left that part of Derbyſhire ſoon after, I

* The ſilver medal was preſented to Mr. Knight for this invention.

had not an opportunity of ſeeing it finiſhed. Since my return home I have had ſeveral made, better finiſhed, and with ſharper threads, than ſmiths in general have an opportunity of giving them.

LETTER from Mr. LLOYD.

Dear ſir,

After you left us laſt autumn, at ſir Joſeph Banks', his ſmith, who is a remarkably good workman, beſtowed much needleſs time and trouble in making a blaſting-ſcrew; for he finiſhed it in the higheſt ſtyle of poliſh, and, I think, made the thread of the worm too fine, or at leaſt finer than was needful. However, it anſwered moſt completely, and very much to ſir Joſeph's ſatisfaction, who lamented he had not ſeen ſuch a contrivance many years ago, when a relation of his uſed to amuſe himſelf with ſplitting the roots of trees, &c. in the common way. I have uſed the *blaſting-ſcrew*, for ſo I ſhall call it, all the laſt and preceding winter with the greateſt ſucceſs, and have gained many loads of fuel, which otherwiſe would have been ſuffered to rot, as the expence and labour in clearing the roots in the ordinary way renders the fuel ſo procured too expenſive; and ſince I have had the ſcrew, I have obſerved ſome hundreds of roots in a rotting ſtate in other places, from the want of knowing that there was ſuch a contrivance as the ſcrew.

When I was at Overton, ſome pieces of very tough, knotty, cloſe-grained oak were picked from the timber-heap, for the uſe of the Gregory lead-mine, by ſir Joſeph Banks' direction, and the ſcrew ſevered ſome pieces four or five feet in length, and nine or ten in diameter, throwing them ſome feet aſunder, to the ſurpriſe of the miners, who were aſſembled on the mine-bank. Sir Joſeph took the ſcrew with him to Reveſby Abby, in Lincolnſhire, where I underſtand he had ſome large roots that had lain by many years as uſeleſs; and I dare ſay he will give you a good account, and bear teſtimony to the utility of the invention. We have uſed it without a ſingle accident; but my neighbour, lord Kirkwall, having procured one to be made by that which I had from you, one of his ſervants, in his lordſhip's abſence, I preſume, put too much powder into the hole, and the ſcrew was blown as high as a one-pair-of-ſtairs window, and paſſed through it into an apartment where a perſon then happened to be, but without any further miſchief than the loſs of a pane of glaſs. Any one who uſes the inſtrument will ſoon learn what depth of ſcrew will be ſufficient to ſplit any root in proportion to its ſtrength, taking care that the ſcrew has ſufficient hold to reſiſt the force of the gunpowder before the root is cleft. I think much powder may be ſaved by uſing a cotton match, impregnated by a ſolution of ſaltpetre, or any of the combuſtible matters generally made uſe of in fireworks; and by the uſe of the cotton the hole through the ſcrew may be leſſened, which will add to the action of the confined powder; through a ſtraw filled with powder, in the manner in which the miners uſe it, anſwers very well. Should any one be timid in uſing the ſcrew, a chain or rope may eaſily be attached to the ſcrew, and that fixed to any log, or faſtened to a ſtake driven in the ground. If wood is rotten, the ſcrew cannot act. I aſſure you, that when I go abroad I conſtantly ſee great quantities of roots in a rotten ſtate, about almoſt every farm-houſe, which would not be the caſe if the utility of the inſtrument was made public.

I am, &c.

J. LLOYD.

Wigfair,
March 26, 1802.

On the NATURE *of the* VARIETIES *of engrafted* FRUIT-TREES, *and a Plan for increaſing the Number of new valuable* FRUITS. *By* Thomas Skyp Dyot Bucknal, *Eſq.*

[From the SAME.]

SOME friends have requeſted that I would introduce another paper on the nature of the valuable varieties of engrafted fruits, as they are of opinion that the eſſay in the ſeventeenth volume of the Tranſactions of the Society is not ſufficiently extended for a ſubject ſo important to the fruit-growers, and thoſe intereſted in the productions of fruits. As a proof of my willingneſs to make the orchardiſt as perfect as I can, I beg you to preſent my compliments to the ſociety, with the following elucidations.

This is a ſubject in rural economy which ought to be much better underſtood than it is, in order to enable the planters to judge of the ſorts proper to be planted, either as an article of pleaſure, profit, or recreation; as much of the credit of the plantation muſt ariſe from judiciouſly chooſing trees of the beſt, new, or middle-aged ſorts, and not of the old worn-out varieties, which latter cannot, in the planting of orchards in common ſituations, ever form *valuable trees*, and muſt end in the diſappointment of the planter.

Engrafted fruits, I have before ſaid, and I now repeat, are not permanent. Every one of the leaſt reflection muſt ſee that there is an eſſential difference between the power and energy of a ſeedling plant, and the tree which is to be raiſed from cuttings or elongations. The ſeedling is endued with the energies of nature, while the graft, or ſcion, is nothing more than a regular elongation, carried perhaps through the ſeveral repeatings of the ſame variety; whereas the ſeed, from having been placed in the earth, germinates and becomes a new plant, wherever nature permits like to produce like in vegetation; as in the oak, beech, and other maſt-bearing trees. Theſe latter trees, from each paſſing through the ſtate of ſeedlings, are perfectly continued, and endued with the functions of forming perfect ſeeds for raiſing other plants by evolution, to the continuance of the like ſpecies.

This is not the caſe with engrafted fruits. They are doomed by nature to continue for a time, and then gradually decline, till at laſt the variety is totally loſt, and ſoon forgotten, unleſs recorded by tradition, or in old publications.

Reaſon, with which Providence has moſt bountifully bleſſed ſome of our ſpecies, has enabled us, when we find a ſuperior variety, to engraft it on a wilding ſtock, or to raiſe plants from layers and cuttings, or even to raiſe up the roots, and thus to multiply our ſources of comfort and pleaſure. This, however, does not imply that the multiplication of the ſame variety, for it is no more, ſhould laſt for ever, unleſs the ſpecies will naturally ariſe from ſeed.

Nature, in her teaching, ſpeaks in very intelligible language; which language is conveyed by experience and obſervation. Thus we ſee that among promiſcuous ſeeds of fruits of the ſame ſort, one or more may ariſe, whoſe fruits ſhall be found to poſſeſs a value far ſuperior to the reſt in many diſtinguiſhable properties. From experience alſo, we have obtained the power, by engrafting, of increaſing the number of this newly-acquired tree, can change its country, give it to a friend, ſend it beyond the ſeas, or fill a kingdom with that fruit, if the natives are diſpoſed ſo to do. Thus we ſeem to a have a kind of creative power in our own hands.

From the attention lately paid to the culture of engrafted fruits, I hope

we are now enabled to continue a ſuppoſed happily-acquired tree, when we can find it, for a much longer duration than if ſuch variety had been left in the ſtate of unaſſiſted nature; perhaps I may ſay for a duration as long again, or ſomething more. After theſe ſanguine expectations, I may reaſonably be aſked, to what does all this amount? for here there is no direct permanency—and why? The *why* is very obvious—becauſe the kernels within the fruit, which are the ſeed of the plants for forming the next generation of trees, will not produce their like. I allow they may do ſo accidentally; but nothing more can be depended on.

For example, ſuppoſe we take ten kernels or pips of any apple raiſed on an engrafted ſtock: ſow them, and they will produce ten different varieties, no two of which will be alike; nor will either of them cloſely reſemble the fruit whence the ſeeds were collected. The leaves alſo of thoſe trees raiſed from the ſame primogenious or parent ſtock, will not *actually* be a copy of the leaves of any one of the varieties or family, to which each is connected by a vegetable conſanguinity. I intentionally uſed the word *actually*, becauſe a reſemblance may be found, though not much of that is to be expected.

I beg that what has been laſt mentioned may not be taken as a diſcouragement to attempts for raiſing new varieties. I was obliged to ſpeak very ſtrongly, in order to place the culture upon its true foundation. I think it need not be obſerved, that there is no acquiring a new variety but through the means of a ſeedling plant; and therefore whoever wiſhes to ſucceed muſt attempt it that way, or wait till others in their plantations may more fortunately produce it.

In chooſing the ſeeds, that apple is moſt likely to produce the cleareſt and fineſt plants, whoſe kernels are firm, large, and well ripened. The ſize of the fruits is not to be regarded; for large apples do not always ripen their fruit well, or rather for cider the ſmall fruits are generally preferred for making the ſtrongeſt, higheſt-flavoured liquor. And for what I have been able to collect in the cider-countries, it is there the opinion, that an apple ſomething above the improved crab promiſes the beſt ſucceſs. This advantage alſo attends the practice: if there are no valuable apples raiſed from that attempt, theſe wildings will make excellent ſtocks to engraft upon.

Gentlemen who actually employ themſelves in attempting to acquire new varieties, ſhould remember that they ought to ſelect all the ſets, from the bed of apple-quick, whoſe appearance is in the leaſt degree promiſing, and plant them together, at ſuch a diſtance as to allow each to produce its fruit, which will happen in about twelve, fifteen, or eighteen years. My friend Mr. Knight, who undoubtedly is the firſt in actual exertions for procuring theſe happily-acquired new varieties, has had two plants bear fruit at ſix years old, and one at five. The cider-countries have offered ſeveral premiums for procuring new varieties, and ſome with good effect. Premiums have been given both to Mr. Knight and Mr. Alban.

When the new variety is to be raiſed from a valuable *admired* apple, I ſhould recommend the placing theſe ſeeds in a garden-pot, filled with mould from an old melon-bed; carrying the pot into a retired ſituation near the water, and giving attention to run the plants to as large a ſize as is convenient within eighteen months. With this view, the pot ſhould be placed in the green-houſe the firſt winter; and when the plants are afterward to be ſet out in the ſpots, they ſhould not be placed under the drip of trees, or much expoſed to the winds.

Two inſtances have been mentioned, the improved crab, and moſt admired apple; but prudence ſays, try all ſorts, and ſomething probably will ariſe; and the proceſs is attended with little trouble or expence to a perſon who conſtantly reſides in the country:

yet, after all this ſcientific care, the apple may want flavour, and be in other reſpects nothing better than a common wilding.

It is an undoubted fact, and worthy of obſervation, that all the different trees of the ſame variety have a wonderful tendency to ſimilarity of appearance among themſelves; and that the parent-ſtock, and all engrafted from it, have a far greater reſemblance to each other, than can be found in any part of the animal creation; and this habit does not vary to any extent of age.

As an encouragement in attempting to increaſe the number of new valuable fruits, we can prove that the golden-pippin is native Engliſh. The red-ſtreak a ſeedling of Hereford-ſhire, if not raiſed, yet was firſt brought into notice by lord Scudamore, and was for a long time called Scudamore's Crab. The Stire apple was accidentally raiſed in the foreſt of Dean, in Glouceſterſhire, and took the name of Foreſt Stire. The cider made from this apple was the ſtrongeſt the country ever produced, according to any living record. The Haglocrab, the beſt cider-fruit now remaining, was diſcovered in the pariſh of Ecloe, on the banks of the Severn; and, about ſixty or ſeventy years ago, many ſcions were taken from this tree by Mr. Bellamy, and engrafted on ſeedling-ſtocks about Roſs. Theſe are now grown old; and, to aſcertain the age of the variety, I went with Charles Edwin, eſq. to Ecloes, in hopes of ſeeing the parent-ſtock of this family. The proprietor of the eſtate acquainted Mr. Edwin that it had ceaſed to bear years ago, and was cut down. Thoſe at Roſs are but poor bearers now, and I ſhould ſuppoſe the variety muſt be 140 years old, though Marſhal, who wrote in the year 1786, mentions theſe trees were proliſic, and he ſuppoſes the ſort to be about eighty years old; but, from preſent experience, it muſt be much more. The Tinton-ſquaſh pear is of Glouceſterſhire; the Barland and Old-field were near Ledbury, Herefordſhire. The two laſt pears clearly bear the names of the two fields where they were raiſed. The Barland fell about ſix years ago, viſibly from weight and longevity, which was ſuppoſed to have been about 200 years. There have been many other names of eſtimation handed down to us, though the realities are now totally worn out, and have ceaſed to exiſt. Can any better proof be deſired, that engrafted fruits are not permanent, than the regret we feel for the loſs of theſe old valuable fruits?

To make my paper as ſhort as convenient, I have dwelt only on the apple and pear; yet all the engrafted fruits are under the ſame predicament of the ſeed not producing its like, and the offspring in time falling into a nothingneſs of growth and bearing, though that ſpace of time muſt certainly depend on the natural longevity and hardneſs of the ſort, ſoil, poſition, care, &c. All theſe are more fully expreſſed in the papers publiſhed in the different volumes of the Tranſactions of this Society, and the two volumes of the Orchardiſt, wherein the whole ſyſtem is extended, to form a rational culture for the management of ſtandard fruits.

It ſhould be remembered, that as I am now alluding to the ſtate of actual permanency, fifty years are to be accounted as nothing; and as often as we come to that point, we are compelled to reſort to our firſt aſſertion, 'That engrafted fruits are not permanent, they being continued from elongations, and not raiſed as a repetition of ſeeds.' This is the only rational way as yet introduced of accounting for the loſs of the valuable old varieties of fruits. Should a better ſyſtem be introduced, I ſhall readily adopt it; but this ſufficiently anſwers the purpoſes of the planter.

Some years ago, from due inveſtigation and thorough conviction, I propagated this principle; and it was publiſhed in the ſeventeeth volume of

the Society's Tranſactions, in the following words: 'All the grafts taken from this firſt tree, or parent-ſtock, or any of the deſcendants, will for ſome generations thrive; but when this firſt ſtock ſhall, by mere dint of old age, fall into actual decay, a nihility of vegetation—the deſcendants, however young, or in whatever ſituation they may be, will gradually decline; and from that time, it would be imprudent, in point of profit to attempt propagating that variety from any of them. This is the dogma which muſt be received. I do not expect a direct aſſent, neither do I wiſh it, for it ſhould be taken with much reſerve; but it is undoubtedly true.' Theſe conſiderations ſhould ſtimulate us in ſearching after new varieties, equal or perhaps ſuperior to thoſe of which we regret the loſs.

Obſerve that, from the time the kernel germinates for apple-quick, ſhould the plant be diſpoſed to form a valuable variety, there will appear a regular progreſſive change, or improvement, in the organization of the leaves until that variety has ſtood, and grown ſufficient to bloſſom, and come into full bearing; that is, from the ſtate of infancy to maturity; and it is this and other circumſtances by which the inquiſitive eye is enabled to form the ſelection among thoſe appearing likely to become valuable fruits. But from that time the new variety, or ſelected plant, compared with all the engraftments which may be taken from it, or any of them, theſe ſhall ſhow a moſt undeviating ſameneſs among themſelves.

It is readily allowed, that the different varieties of fruits are eaſily diſtinguiſhed from each other by many particulars, not only reſpecting their general fertility, and the form, ſize, ſhape, and flavour of the fruit, but alſo the manner of the growth of the tree, the thickneſs and proportion of the twigs, their ſhooting from their parent ſtem, the form, colour, and conſiſtence of the leaf, and many other circumſtances, by which the variety can be identified; and were it poſſible to engraft each variety upon the ſame ſtock, they would ſtill retain their diſcriminating qualities, with the utmoſt undeviating certainty.

The proper concluſion to be drawn from the ſtatement in the laſt paragraph is this—that were any one to put the thought in practice on a full-grown hardy or crab ſtock, it would produce an excellent proof that engrafted fruits are not permanent. For if twenty different varieties were placed together, ſo that each might receive its nature from the ſame ſtem, they would gradually die off in actual ſucceſſion, according to the age or ſtate of health of the reſpective variety, at the time the ſcions were placed in the ſtock; and a diſcriminating eye, uſed to this buſineſs, would nearly be able to foretell the order in which each ſcion would actually decline. Should it alſo happen that two or three ſuckers from the wilding ſtock had been permitted to grow among the *twenty grafts*, ſuch ſuckers or wilding ſhoots will continue, and make a tree after all the reſt are gone. A further conſequence would reſult from the experiment: among ſuch a number of varieties, each of the free growers would ſtarve the delicate, and drive them out of exiſtence only ſo much the ſooner. It muſt be obſerved, that this ſuppoſed ſtem is the foſter-parent to the twenty ſcions, and real parent to the ſuckers; and thoſe the leaſt converſant with engrafted fruits know the advantage acquired from this circumſtance. And here it is worth while remarking, that a Gaſcoyne, or wild cherry, will grow to twice the ſize that ever an engrafted cherry did.

By an experiment we have had in hand for five years, it will appear that the roots and ſtem of a large tree, after the firſt ſet of ſcions are exhauſted or worn out, may carry another ſet for many years; and we ſuſpect a third ſet, provided the engrafting is properly done, and the engrafter chooſes a new variety. Now the Ripſton Pippin, of Yorkſhire, is the favourite,

as being a free grower and good bearer, with fine fruit. This, however, may certainly be depended on, that when a new apple is raiſed from ſeed, if a ſcion were placed in a retired ſituation, and conſtantly cut down, as a ſtool in a copſe-wood, and the apple never ſuffered to fulfil the intentions of nature in bearing fruit, the practitioners of the following ages may ſecure ſcions from that ſtool, to continue the variety much longer. Hence, though I have written as much as is in my power againſt permanency, yet I have taken ſome pains to aſſure the planters, that forecaſt, ſelection, pruning, cleanlineſs, and care, will make the orchards turn to more profit for the riſing generations than what they have done for the laſt hundred years.

To place the nature of varieties in its true light, for the information of the public, I muſt maintain, that the different varieties of the apple will, after a certain time, decline, and actually die away, and each variety, or all of the ſame ſtem or family, will loſe their exiſtence in vegetation; and yet it is a known fact, and mentioned in the ſeventeeth volume of the Tranſactions, that after the debility of age has actually taken poſſeſſion of any variety, it will yet thrive by being placed againſt a ſouthern wall, and treated as wall-fruit. Who, however, can afford to raiſe cider at that expenſe, except as matter of curioſity, to prove, that when the vital principle in vegetation is nearly exhauſted, a ſuperior care and warmth will ſtill keep the variety in exiſtence ſome time longer?

It ſhould be underſtood, that the external air of Britain is rather too cold for the delicate fruits, which is the reaſon why, in the Orchadiſt, I lay ſuch a ſtreſs on procuring *warmth* for the trees, by *draining*, *ſhelter*, and *manure*. It would be now loſt time to attempt to recover the old varieties as an article of profit.

If I have not expreſſed myſelf, in this Eſſay on the Nature of varieties, with ſo much cleatneſs and conviction as might have been expected, it ſhould be conſidered that it is an abſtruſe ſubject, very little underſtood, and requiring at firſt ſome degree of *faith*, *obſervation*, and *perſeverance*. The prejudices of mankind revolt againſt it. They are not diſpoſed to allow the diſtinction of nature; and they imagine, that in the act of engrafting or multiplying they give new life, whereas it is only continuing the exiſtence of the ſame tree, ſtick, or bud. Obſerve what I ſaid before:—the ſeed of the apple, when placed in the earth, germinates, and unfolds itſelf into a new plant, which ſucceſſively paſſes through the ſtages of infancy, maturity, and decay, like its predeceſſors. I might ſay, all created nature is ſimilar in this reſpect; though, from the circumſtance that varieties are much longer lived than man, the plants have appeared to be poſſeſſed of eternal powers of duration; nothing ſublunary, however, which poſſeſſes either animal or vegetable life, is exempt from age and death.

Within the laſt twenty years I have travelled many hundred miles, and converſed with the moſt intelligent men in each country: and I now want to convince mankind, for no other reaſon than becauſe it is their intereſt ſo to believe, that there is in creation an order of beings (engrafted fruits) ſo formed, that we have the power of multiplying a ſingle variety to whatever number of trees we pleaſe;—that the firſt ſet ariſes from a ſmall ſeed;—that the next and deſcendant ſets are propagated by engraftings, or from cuttings, layers, &c.;—and that although theſe trees may amount to millions, yet, on the death of the primogenious or parent-ſtock, merely from old age, or nihility of growth, each individual ſhall decline, in whatever country they may be, or however endued with youth and health. I ſay they ſhall gradually begin to decline; and in the courſe of time, or of centuries, to thoſe who would prefer that expreſſion, the *whole variety* will ſcarcely have a ſingle tree remaining to ſhow

what the fruit was. Let thoſe who are not diſpoſed to aſſent to this ſtatement, aſk themſelves what is become of the old loſt varieties? Did they die, or did wicked men maliciouſly cut them up?

I, who am firmly convinced of the truth of what I have advanced on this ſubject, have no doubt but that the ſame would happen by engrafting on the oak or beech, if the maſt raiſed from the engrafted tree did not produce the like; for there the queſtion turns.

It is not known, that the woodman in ſetting out his ſapling oaks, always ſelects new ſeedling plants, and never continues one upon an old ſtool; and that if he ſhould ſo blunder, that tree, from the ſtool, will neither have the freedom of growth, nor the ſize nor firmneſs of timber, equalled to a new-raiſed plant.

I wiſh I could perſuade my friends, that with the ſame attention with which the woodman acts, the planter is to raiſe his orchard from the young fruits which thrive in the neighbourhood, or are in health, and full-bearing in the country whence they are to be brought.

The fruit-grower ſhould look to ſelection, cleanlineſs and care. To me it is a circumſtance perfectly indifferent, whether he is to uſe Mr. Forſyth's compoſition, Mr. Bullingham's boiled linſeed oil, or my medication. I only maintain, that the wounded parts of trees want ſomething to deſtroy the inſects and vermin, and heal the wood, from which the trees are kept in health.

Let thoſe who are bleſsed with fruit-plantations attend to their preſervation, and not leave them to the ſtate of unaſſiſted nature.

EMMA: OR THE ARTIST.

THERE is ſomething ſo completely attractive in female lovelineſs when it is united with that modeſty which is peculiarly ornamental in the ſex, that cold muſt be the heart which does not feel its influence, and inſenſible the man who does not behold it with delight! Nature, it has been aſſerted by ſome phlegmatic writers, diſpenſes her bounties with an equal hand, and when the caſket is adorned with exquiſite workmanſhip, ſeldom devotes any attention to the jewel which it contains. If this hypotheſis were true, beauty could no longer be conſidered as an acquiſition, at leaſt could never be thought a deſirable poſſeſſion in a wife; for though perſonal attractions may be the firſt object a man would look for in a miſtreſs, they certainly are not ſo in a partner for life. But what reaſon can be aſſigned againſt perſonal and mental charms being united? Why ſhould not a lovely woman poſſeſs an amiable mind? Is not the fragrance of the roſe even ſuperior to its beauty? and why ſhould not natural and moral excellence be equally combined? I could innumerate a variety of inſtances which would prove the aſſociation of perſonal and mental attractions, but I ſhall content myſelf with merely naming one; and entertain my readers with the hiſtory of a young female, whom by accident I became acquainted with in the courſe of the laſt year.

It will perhaps be neceſſary for me to preface my little narrative, by ſaying, that I am a being accuſtomed to lead a kind of retrogade life, that I am continually roving about and changing my ſituation, and ſeldom ſeek my home until exhauſted by fatigue. My fortune is ſuch as to enable me to keep both horſes and a carriage, but of the latter I ſeldom make any uſe; yet I have the pleaſure of knowing I can accommodate my neighbours, whenever I chooſe to invite them to dine at my houſe. My groom may probably imagine I have as little occaſion for his ſervices as for that of the conveyance which I have recently named; for though I mount my ſteeds at the commencement of a

journey, I ſeldom purſue that mode of travelling above half a dozen miles. In ſhort, I may be termed an *Obſerver of Nature*, or an eccentric being, who conceives that her works are only to be diſcovered in a walk, for the rapid motion of a horſe, or the lulling movement of a carriage, are certainly not calculated to give the mind a complete ſcope. The moment I behold a building which attracts my attention, I diſmount, and order my groom to proceed to the firſt neighbouring town, and there remain, until I think proper to meet him, at the beſt inn which the place affords. If a ſtructure, which has been raiſed by the effect of human ingenuity, has the power of ſo completely arreſting my deſigns, how much more muſt my attention be attracted by obſerving the human fabric, and by beholding a countenance, which I conſider as the index of a liberal mind!

Near ſeven months have elapſed ſince I was making an excurſion in an agricultural part of this proſperous iſle, when, diſmounting from my horſe, I gave him to my ſervant, for the purpoſe of joining a party of gleaners I ſaw in an adjacent field. The toils of the day were juſt terminating, and the greater part of them had aſſembled in a ſocial groupe, the fatigues of labour were alleviated by cheerfulneſs, and the merry jeſt went ſocially round. I threw ſome few ſhillings among them, to contribute to their hilarity, and immediately ſeated myſelf under a hedge, they approached me to pour forth the gratitude of their ſenſations, and my heart was amply and abundantly repaid! I enquired into the ſituations of theſe worthy ſons of induſtry, and heard the methods by which their numerous families were maintained, and as the converſation became intereſting to the relators, time ſeemed to move with a rapid pace. Affection, however, ſoon reminded the different parties that they had ſtaid beyond their uſual time, and I was left to meditate upon the different ſtations which Providence has thought proper to aſſign to mankind!

I remained transfixed to the ſpot in which they had left me, ruminating upon the various occurrences of life, when my attention was attracted toward a female who entered the incloſure, whoſe appearance little correſponded with her evident diſtreſs! With timid apprehenſion ſhe gazed around her, as if fearful of meeting ſome inſulting eye, and not obſerving me, ſhe immediately began ſearching the ſtubble, and eagerly thruſt its produce in her lap. The method ſhe had adopted to ſupply the wants of nature, immediately excited an intereſt in my mind, and as evening began to throw her mantle over the horizon, I contrived to draw nearer, without being perceived. Her gown, as far as I could diſtinguiſh, was a dark brown calico, made in a form calculated to ſhow the perfection of her ſhape; and a ſtraw hat veiled features calculated to enſlave their beholders, for never had I ſeen ſo lovely a face! Her light brown hair, which was ſeparated upon the forehead, and fell in ringlets down each ſide of her face, ſhaded a pair of blue eyes, full of intelligence, where every feeling that could adorn the human mind might be traced!

'Great power!' ſaid I, mentally, 'who preſides over the univerſe! what can have occaſioned a being of ſuch ſuperior form to be driven to this diſtreſs? Thou, who from the beginning haſt protected the unfortunate, can ſuch a perfect mortal as I behold, be in want of a bit of bread? My ſoliloquy was ſcarcely ended, when I felt ſtruck with my preſumption, for it appeared as if I had ventured to arraign the Almighty's decree; and, full of humility, I remained in a meditating poſture until the object of my attention was joined by a female in years.

I was ſcreened from obſervation, by a buſh which projected, and the lovely girl not imagining her converſation was overheard, ſaid to the old woman, who abſolutely hobbled toward her, 'Indeed, Dorothy, I cannot ſuffer you to glean!' 'Oh, miſs,' replied the old woman, 'my maſter

is quite comfortable, and if I do but pick a handful of ears, every little you know helps; though to be ſure, my dear young lady, ſtooping does not very well agree with my years!'—at that moment the lovely girl caught a glimpſe of my perſon; and turning quickly away, made her no anſwer, but inſtantly hurried out of the field.

The old woman's optics not having diſcerned me, ſhe was aſtoniſhed at the ſudden flight of her young friend, and gazing anxiouſly after the object of her ſolicitude, ſhe exclaimed, 'What can have driven the dear girl away!' 'I fear I have been ſo unfortunate:' ſaid I, approaching her with the utmoſt civility, as I have ever thought that age and misfortune have an abſolute claim upon attention and reſpect; and this opinion, of courſe, was not leſſened by the connexion, which appeared to exiſt between the perſon I was accoſting, and the moſt lovely creature I had ever beheld in my life.

'Ah, God help her,' replied my companion, 'ſhe is as timid as a young leveret; and yet I am ſure ſhe can have nothing to fear, for ſuch goodneſs as hers, if we are to believe in ſcripture, muſt always be under ſome guardian angel's care'.—The garulity of years, is eaſily excited, and I found little difficulty in perſuading the worthy Dorothy to give me a ſketch of the intereſting Emma's life, upon aſſuring her that it was not curioſity which induced me to ſolicit this indulgence, but the deſire of relieving ſo lovely a being from diſtreſs.

'There is ſomething,' ſaid ſhe, 'in your countenance that makes me believe what you tell me; but the name of my maſter muſt be concealed; not that he ever committed an action which reflected upon his character, but a train of misfortunes have blaſted all his proſpects in life. I lived with his lady, who is now an angel in heaven, ſome years before the birth of that dear child, and though his fortune was not large, yet with economy it was ſufficient to procure them what might be conſidered as the elegances of life. At the time of the captain's marriage he had a company in a horſe regiment, but at the cloſe of the American war he ſold it to pleaſe his wife, and bought a very pretty eſtate in Devonſhire, about two miles from the ſea-ſide. The generoſity of his diſpoſition could only be equalled by the benevolent feelings of his heart; yet there were often pretended friends, who impoſed upon his goodneſs, by telling him a tale of ſorrow and diſtreſs. Though my miſtreſs was equally kind and benevolent, yet ſhe was more aware of the deſigning views of mankind, and frequently prevented him from becoming the dupe of the artful; and he may date his misfortunes from the hour of her death!

'Never was grief more ſincere than that of my maſter's, and for ſome months he never went out of the houſe; but time, which has the power of ſoothing all afflictions, relieved his ſorrows, and compoſed his mind. Miſs Emma, who was about fourteen, was ſent to ſchool at Exeter, and I had the whole management of the houſe, and ſometimes took the liberty of hinting to him, that I feared the conſtant ſucceſſion of company augmented his expences more than he was aware. To this he would reply, "be under no apprehenſion, but, my good Dorothy, I cannot bear to be alone, for the loſs of my beloved Eliza, when I am in ſolitude, abſolutely tortures and agonizes my mind!"

'Cards, during the lifetime of my amiable miſtreſs, ſcarcely ever were ſeen in the houſe; but after her death, they were the conſtant amuſement of my maſter, and his numerous ſet of friends. Among them, was a gentleman who was known to be a gambler, and his intimacy in the family excited a thouſand fears; I therefore perſuaded a brother of mine, who lived in the neighbourhood, to write an anonymous letter, cautioning captain D—— to be upon his guard. Another of his aſſociates was a man

of looſe principles, and one who had frequently borrowed money of him during my lady's life; and, from circumſtances which occurred, I was convinced that afterward he had obtained credit for very large ſums. In ſhort, ſir, among thoſe men who were inſidiouſly endeavouring to rob him of his property, not one of them, I am ſure, would have given ten pounds to preſerve either his credit or his life. That he was imprudent, I muſt confeſs, but he was the moſt generous of beings; and the unfortunate always found him the kindeſt of friends; for the obligations he conferred were doubled by the manner of beſtowing them; and as he was incapable of deceiving others, he had no idea of deceit himſelf.

'Five years had elapſed after the death of my beloved lady, and in each my maſter's expences were increaſed. Creditors were continually demanding payment; and, at length, I had the miſery of hearing his principles abuſed. Duty, gratitude, and affection, induced me to remonſtrate, and he acknowledged his affairs were in a deranged ſtate. I adviſed him to ſell his property, and immediately quit Devonſhire, and retire to the neighbourhood in which he is now placed.

"Sell my property," ſaid he, Dorothy, "I have none to diſpoſe of. I have mortgaged, to the utmoſt, every foot of ground; but, fool that I have been, there is a ſupport for my beloved Emma, as my wife's jointure is in the hands of Mr. Topham, and is worth eight thouſand pounds." While we were converſing upon the ſubject of the expenditure of his property, and I was urging him to quit the connections he had formed, the poſtman arrived, and he received a letter to inform him, that Topham was become a bankrupt, and was gone abroad.

'I will not attempt deſcribing the wretched ſcene that followed, as it is impoſſible for me to paint either his anguiſh or remorſe; and ſtill leſs have I the power of doing juſtice to the amiable conduct of that dear angel, whoſe perſonal attractions have produced an intereſt, even in a ſtranger's heart. No murmurs at the loſs of fortune ever eſcaped her—not even a look of diſappointment was to be ſeen. She excelled in painting, and from her exertions my maſter and myſelf have both been maintained. Once a month her drawings are ſent up to London, and their value is next day returned by the poſt: a little air is abſolutely neceſſary for her exiſtence, but ſhe never goes out until evening begins to cloſe. Since the harveſt has began, we generally contrive between us to carry home a few ears of corn. Remorſe for the paſt has produced ſuch an effect upon my maſter's conſtitution, that I fear it is impoſſible for him to recover his health; I am old and infirm, and know not who will be a protector to that angel, for my maſter will not apply to any of his friends.

"I will be her protector, her friend, and her father," I exclaimed, with enthuſiaſtic energy in my voice.—"Oh, gracious God! how grateful am I for thy bleſſings, ſince they will enable me to promote the happineſs of that amiable creature's life." The old woman claſped her hands in a tranſport of extacy, and implored heaven to ſhower its choiceſt treaſures on my head. Then, gazing upon me with an air of ſuſpicion, ſaid, 'but ſurely a ſtranger can never be ſo diſintereſtedly anxious to ſuccour the unfortunate, and relieve the diſtreſſed.'

"Periſh the man!" I replied, "who could harbour a thought injurious to ſuch purity. My fortune is ample; I have no near relatives to ſupport; but I muſt not rudely intrude into the dwelling of misfortune, for though I feel for the obliged party, much delicacy will be required. My companion allowed that this would be neceſſary, as her maſter had not acquainted any of his friends with the real ſtate of his affairs. I therefore determined to take ſome hours to reflect upon the beſt method of being ſerviceable, and ſhe promiſed to meet me at the ſame hour on the following night."

[To be concluded in our next.]

ON PAINTING.

By Mr. EDWARD DAYES, Painter.

ESSAY IX.—*ON STYLE.*

Nor, while I recommend the ſtudying the art from artiſts, can I be ſuppoſed to mean that nature is to be neglected. *Sir Joſhua Reynolds.*

PERFECTION in painting requires that the choice, the imitation, and execution, be directed to the ſame idea: this only can produce a perfect unity in the whole work. It will appear defective in proportion as it is deprived of a union of theſe qualities; as that which poſſeſſes the feweſt faults will ever be the moſt perfect work. Hence the foundation of a rational inquiry after excellence in art; for he who wiſhes to examine a picture nicely or critically, muſt make himſelf acquainted with the firſt idea, or general intention of the whole, then each part ſeparately, conſidering them in themſelves as relative to each other and to the whole.

An inquiry after the different ſtyles of painting would naturally lead to a hiſtory of the art itſelf; but as that is a ſubject that has been ſo frequently handled, we ſhall only touch ſo far on it as may immediately anſwer our purpoſe.

The ſo much boaſted criticiſms on the works of the ancients, which are to be found in various authors, can be but little depended on, though often dreſſed up in the technical phraſes of art; becauſe the ſtrongeſt language will always be uſed on the moſt extraordinary occaſion, but the advantage reſulting to the reader will depend on the capacity of the writer.

All diſcuſſion at preſent on works that have ceaſed to exiſt for near 2000 years would be only loſs of time, as from want of reference, they could not tend to illuſtrate any one rule of art. Such inquiries may ſerve to amuſe the idle, but will not tend in the leaſt to benefit the artiſt.

No one can deny, however humiliating the thought may be, that we are indebted to the Greeks for ſome of the fineſt forms at preſent in art. Many have attributed their ſuperior powers to the climate: but we ought rather to aſcribe them to the freedom they enjoyed, and the wiſdom of their legiſlators: not forgetting their enthuſiaſm for beauty, which they conſidered as a gift of the gods; and that with them men were more valued for their perſonal merit than for the wealth they poſſeſſed. The happy Grecian might ſit himſelf down contented in his poverty, knowing it was not thought diſreputable, and that his abilities would prove a ſufficient paſſport to ſociety and to the higheſt honours. The modern artiſt is ſolicitous of making money, knowing it is now the firſt teſt of his abilities in the opinion of the world, and a ſtronger recommendation than wiſdom. Hence the nobler energies of the ſoul are weakened; and from want of the ſtronger motive, honour, the love of fame ſinks into the baſe and ſelfiſh deſire of wealth. This has induced the weak and puſillanimous to apply to the arts; and as they aſpire after nothing but intereſt, they are unacquainted with thoſe ſublime conceptions the arts require.

The Phœnicians are believed not to have carried the arts to any great degree of perfection. To be ſufficiently well for the purpoſe of exportation would be the utmoſt that would be required; and perhaps their merchants would not be inclined to riſk much on articles the buyers of which would be the wealthy, and often the ignorant. What might be requiſite for the purpoſe of ornament would be more likely to be ſhowy than juſt.

The Romans appear to have encouraged the arts as a means of adding to their pride, and of feeding

their vanity. As a people they are rather to be viewed at a diſtance; their character is too ſelfiſh and oppreſſive to invite to an intimacy. The beſt works produced among the Romans from Auguſtus to Trajan are juſtly held to be of Grecian workmanſhip.

It is always more eaſy to imitate the ſtyle than the reaſonings and ſcience of the original: hence thoſe who ſucceeded the early Greeks failed by degrees in the moſt eſſential parts; which may account for that ſort of mechanical harſhneſs, and often want of elegance, obſervable in ſome of the works called Roman.

We have no right to look for true taſte among a people who could drag their captives at their chariot wheels, or ſlaughter them in theatres. They appear to have preferred pomp and ſhow, 'barbaric pearl and gold,' to true taſte; and exhibit a picture of gaudy and well-diſciplined barbarians. A nation which places the firſt reputation on arms or war, will never have a higher eſteem for the peaceable profeſſor of deſign than a Spartan or Roman. Many of their moſt renowned works are recommended more to notice on account of their richneſs than beauty, as Nero's golden palaces, &c. Pomp and luxury was their object; and they fell into the common error of ignorance, that of augmenting the matter inſtead of improving the form *.

Among the moderns, every country that has formed a ſchool appears to have had a cauſe for its ſtyle in its national character. The gravity of the Florentines and Romans might require that juſtneſs and truth of form which they ſaw in the antique ſtatues. The Venetians, a wealthy and gay people, would delight in magnificence from their commerce with the Eaſt; and painting for the rich and luxurious would neceſſarily introduce ſplendour and brilliancy of colour, with proceſſions, feaſts, &c. The Flemiſh and Dutch were content with ſuperficial or general repreſentations of things. Of the French, the beſt maſters have ſought perfection in the Roman ſchool; while others, complying with the national love for ſplendour, have ſought perfection by buſtle and ſhow. Of our own nation, the love of locality and portraiture may be ſaid ſtrongly to mark the *amor patriæ*, and to exhibit their charity and love for each other.

A knowledge of the different ſtyles is abſolutely neceſſary to enable us to think deeply and freely. No man, however great his powers, was ever capable of ſubſiſting on his own ſtock: the more wide the field of inquiry, the more we increaſe our knowledge, and quicken and enlarge our ideas. We cannot doubt that M. Angelo and Raphael poſſeſſed all the knowledge of art diſcovered in their time. It is our duty to live, as it were, amid the great works of art, that, by enriching our minds, we may be able to produce ſomething great and noble of our own. This is the true ſpirit of imitation, and which we may continue, without fear of its doing us an injury, from infancy till we arrive at the fulleſt ſtate of vigour.

By ſtyle as well as manner we are enabled to judge if the picture be the work of a certain maſter; for, ſhould we remain doubtful from the former, a reference to the penciling may determine the point. For, as in writing or ſpeaking we ſhall generally diſcover in perſons a fondneſs for certain phraſes, or a peculiar turn or connection of their ſentences, by which their ſtyle may be known: ſo in painting we ſhall diſcover ſome favourite part forced on the eye: or thought, attitude, or habit occur, which ſtamps the maſter's ſtyle. Every one will poſſeſs more or leſs of the ſtyle and manner of the maſter or ſchool from which he comes. Raphael, in his oil pictures, never wholly got rid of that littleneſs of ſtyle derived from Perugino.

* In point of order, the Phœnicians ſhould precede the Grecians; but I have paid no attention to chronological arrangement.

To inſure a good ſtyle we muſt early habituate ourſelves to contemplate noble works of imagination. This, if connected with a vigorous mind, a lively fancy, a ſtrong memory, and good judgment, will be attended with ſucceſs. That thoſe qualities are neceſſary to enable us to form a good ſtyle, is certain; for by the imagination we conceive images, and if the impreſſion be clear the ſtyle will be ſo too. But ſhould the images be faint and imperfect, the ſtyle will partake of theſe defects. For it cannot be denied that as the painter is affected himſelf, in the ſame degree will he move the ſpectator. Hence, if the mind be dull, and indiſpoſed to receive clear and diſtinct ideas of things, the ſtyle will be ſtiff and heavy; or if the images be irregular and diſordered, the work will be perplexed and confuſed. It appears to follow of courſe, that a lively fancy will be accompanied with a happy memory: through this we are ſupplied with the vaſt treaſures of art and nature; for without a large ſtock of images we ſhall never be able to diverſify our works in the way variety demands, and they would appear inſipid from the too frequent return of the ſame ideas. But, unleſs all this be accompanied by a good judgment, the imagination will riot at the expence of reaſon, and we ſhall never poſſeſs a ſound and accurate ſtyle. Hence it is that we often confound genius with an active imagination, not recollecting that exceſs is not its character, and that the more we crowd with incidents the more we weaken; and that, like great talkers, we may be bad orators.

We ſhall now proceed to deſcribe, in the beſt way we can, the characters of the various ſtyles. Taſte and ſtyle differ from each other; the former applying to our choice of objects, while the latter appears to ariſe from our mode of treating them, or the augmenting certain parts and depreſſing others, as in the figures of M. Angelo, in which we ſee the convex lines raiſed ſo much as to give them a muſcular and gigantic air; by attempting which many of his imitators have often loſt the eſſential character of the object. We ſay 'the great ſtyle of Raphael's drapery,' not merely on account of the caſting of the folds, which ſhows taſte, but from his dropping the minute parts, and taking only thoſe eſſential to the great character in painting. The artiſts who have ſought the great ſtyle have purſued the above conduct; that is, have attended to the great and eſſential character, while thoſe who have forced the trifling parts on the eye have formed a mean or little one. The great ſtyle requires the human face, the other includes the wrinkles and other marks of the infirmities of nature.

Sublime Style.

The ſublime ſtyle is by many connected with a certain degree of intemperance and exceſs. The attempts of ſuch may juſtly be termed the hobgoblin ſtyle; for with them nothing is ſublime but what will ſcare a man out of his ſenſes. But ſcenes terrible or ſhocking, however admiſſible in poetry, or where an orator may have occaſion to work on the feelings of his audience, do not aſſociate happily with painting; and, when attempted without the greateſt care and circumſpection, become either ridiculous or diſguſting. Brueghel (called helliſh) as alſo Callot, in their whimſical ſcenes intended to affect us ſeriouſly. And Rubens, out of the number of repreſentations he has left of the fall of the damned, has rather ſhewn a warmth of imagination than judgment in their treatment: it is true, the machinery he had to uſe was human figures; but inſtead of making the moſt of them by exhibiting their ſufferings, and thereby applying to our feelings, he has created a ſet of fiends that make us laugh. Scenes of horror require great delicacy of treatment, as the mind cannot dwell without diſguſt on repreſentations brought home in that determined way which painting demands. Pilkington relates, from Sandrart,

that Spagnoletto repreſented an Ixion on the wheel ſo full of pain and agony, that the wife of Mr. Uffel, the poſſeſſor, from looking on it when with child, was ſo affected by it, 'that her child when it was born had all the fingers diſtorted exactly as the fingers of the Ixion appeared in the picture.' So ſenſible of the neceſſity of this delicacy have the beſt painters been, that they have concealed as much as poſſible the ſhocking parts of a ſpectacle. In the Slaughter of the Innocents, Pouſſin would be content with an incident or two, while Le Brun in the ſame ſubject has aggravated all the horrors by an endleſs variety of butcheries. Rubens, in one of the fineſt ſketches of his we have had in this country, has repreſented, in a diſguſting way, a ſaint with his hands and feet cut off; and has moſt injudiciouſly, nay, moſt inſenſibly and indelicately, introduced dogs licking up the blood. Contraſt the above and Titian's picture of the winding out a ſaint's bowels on a wheel, with Domenichino's delicate and ſenſible repreſentation of the death of St. Cecilia. A Britiſh artiſt would diſplay more feeling and delicacy in repreſenting a bull-bait, than either Titian or Rubens have done in the above compoſitions. Juſtice muſt allow that a want of delicacy is not often chargeable on the Italians.

In the ſmall compaſs we have been obliged to preſcribe to ourſelves, we fear it will become difficult ſufficiently to compreſs the matter, and at the ſame time render the ſubject tolerably clear.

We take it for granted that the mind well informed is the true ſtandard of whatever is great and illuſtrious in any point of view. Hence it will follow that in works of imagination we ſhall derive credit in proportion as we diſplay more or leſs mental energy. For though we may not poſſeſs the power of colouring, or ſuch other excellencies as would captivate the eye, yet we may exert the vigour of the ſoul in the reaſoning and ſcience of the work; and this energy it is in our power to improve by education and habit. One of our firſt duties is to enlarge and elevate our notions; for the dignity and grandeur of our work depend entirely on the dignity and grandeur of our thoughts, and the elevation of the ſoul. A greater misfortune cannot attend the arts than for men of mean parts to practiſe them, either as painters or engravers, as they invariably communicate the ſame bad qualities to their works. We may look below the ſuperficies, and not be dazzled with a gaudy appearance, or ſuffer our admiration to dwell on what the wiſe would contemn; or we may be led away after pageantry and pomp, miſtaking them for true honour and glory. By exerting the mind we may raiſe our work into the ſublime, from a judicious introduction of ſuch acceſſory circumſtances as may add dignity or contribute to the illuſtration of the ſtory; particularly if they have a ſkilful connection, and affect the imagination. We have noticed ſome ſuch inſtances already in our eſſay on Invention, as in Raphael's Paul at Lyſtra, Barry's picture of Elyſium, &c. Theſe acceſſory circumſtances occur frequently in the works of the poets, and contribute much to heighten the ſcene; as in Lear, the thunder-ſtorm makes the heart bleed for the ſufferings of the old king: and how ſublime does the viſion of the dagger render Macbeth by its judicious introduction! Vaſtneſs is productive of the ſublime, by conſidering any object that takes up much room in the fancy. But we muſt be careful not to fall into a common error, and miſtake greatneſs of bulk for nobleneſs in works of art: one of Lyſipus' ſtatues of Alexander, though no bigger than the life, might give the mind more noble ideas than Mount Athos had it been cut into the figure of that hero. This ſubject has been in ſome meaſure amplified already in our Eſſays on Invention and Compoſition: it may therefore be ſcarcely neceſſary to mention, that the ſublime requires that the ſubject of our picture ſhould

be a great one, and, if poſſible, carry with it an univerſal intereſt. In the compoſition, ſimplicity and gravity are eſſential to produce grandeur: we cannot wiſh for better examples than are offered to our view in the cartoons of Raphael; particularly the Paul at Lyſtra, his Preaching at Athens, and in the Death of Ananias. We ſhall obſerve great grandeur in thoſe fine compoſitions by Weſt, of the Departure of Regulus, Mark Antony haranguing over the body of J. Ceſar, and the Swearing young Hannibal: the Death of Stephen by the ſame artiſt is full of the pathetic: the prints from the above are in every one's hands. Too much contraſt deſtroys the great ſtyle; it aſſociates beſt with the pleaſing. Beauty excites gayety and pleaſure, the ſublime inclines to ſerioufneſs. Elevation of character is alſo neceſſary; a want of nobleneſs contributes much to depreciate the works of the Flemiſh, and particularly of the Dutch ſchool. The Hercules and the Apollo Belvidere in their form approximate moſt to the ſublime, except we be permitted to conjecture what might have been the famous Jove and Minerva of Phidias. A broad light and ſhade, or, in other words, a fine *chiaro-ſcuro*, add an effect of ſublimity. Some of Rubens' pictures ſtrike wonderfully on that account, and Reynold's Infant Hercules receives an uncommon air of grandeur from the broad and judicious diſpoſition of the maſſes. Though this ſtyle does not require the ſoft harmonious glow of Venetian colouring, which agrees beſt with the beautiful, yet it by no means follows, that it authorizes a diſregard of the grouping of the colours, to the total neglect of the general harmony of the picture. The colouring ſhould be ſober and dignified; we do not mean black and heavy, but compoſed of ſuch colours as are full, rich, glowing, and rather deep than light. The penciling ſhould be firm and deciſive, with the parts well defined. We ſhould particularly guard againſt trifling events, poor or mean thoughts, and whatever is low and vulgar: ſuch things mar a good whole, and appear worſe by contraſt, like the blemiſhes on beautiful bodies. The moſt eſteemed maſters have carefully avoided introducing in their works things ſordid and baſe: in the higher ſtyle there ſhould never appear any thing inſignificant or unneceſſary, as dogs, cats, parrots, &c.: ſuch things as theſe often add a grace to the picturesque, but deſtroy grandeur. Neither will theatrical ſplendor or gaudy apparel ſuit the ſublime: the reaſon is, they affect not beyond the eye; and that which leaves no impreſſion on the mind, we may reſt aſſured, is not the thing we ſeek. A work truly ſublime does not merely pleaſe: that is the province of inferior excellence. A grand work will confound, aſtoniſh, and, with the impetuoſity of a hurricane, bear down all before it. The ſublime appears founded on a union of the moſt noble and elevated parts of nature joined to the moſt profound efforts of the imagination. Its qualities appear to be ſimplicity, with a ceetain uniformity united with ſolemnity and gravity. Simplicity is neceſſary to nobleneſs, as ornament deſtroys greatneſs of manner. So the parts ſhould be ample, as is effected by large mantles, &c.

At Agis' ſummons, with a mantle broad
His mighty limbs Leonidas unfolds,
And quits his couch. GLOVER.

M. Angelo and Raphael approach this ſtyle in their ideas and inventions, but neither appears to accord with it in his forms. M. Angelo, from attempting the ſublime, produced what may be termed the *terrible*, in which the attitudes are forced and extraordinary, and the figures vaſt, robuſt, and muſcular: he choſe in expreſſion the point moſt extreme, and generally departing from objects in themſelves pleaſing.

Expreſſive Style.

In this Raphael ſtands a ſhining example, and appears to have touched

the extreme point of excellence. Happily we have many of his fineſt works at hand in the cartoons at Windſor caſtle. Witneſs his Elymas the ſorcerer, whoſe figure is moſt juſtly expreſſive of the puniſhment of blindneſs which had befallen him; and the aſtoniſhment of the ſpectators is depicted with great judgment. But let us contraſt the above with the Death of Ananias, and obſerve the conſternation and terror in the ſpectators at a puniſhment ſo much more terrible. There we behold with what a maſterly hand the artiſt has raiſed the feelings in proportion to the exciting cauſe, without the leaſt waſte of force in the expreſſion. In the firſt picture is more repoſe; in the ſecond, a greater degree of action correſponding with the intereſt excited by the event. In the firſt picture we ſee the ſurpriſe of an earthly judge at an event beyond the power of his underſtanding; in the other, a calm and dignified ſet of beings, conſcious of the interpoſition of a Divine Power. Much has been ſaid of the cartoons; every one ſpeaks of the dignity of the Paul in the picture representing his 'preaching at Athens,' which for ſimplicity and dignity reaches the ſublime. Hiſtory is the walk that ennobles the art. This calls forth exertions that elevate and dignify our nature. It might be doubted if the Greek ever arrived to that degree of perfection in expreſſion which Raphael has ſhown in his works: they certainly ſacrificed it to the beauty of appearance. Still we ſhall look with delight on the Laocoon, the dying Alexander, the Niobes, &c. Raphael to aſſiſt the expreſſion in his figures, appears to have marked the tendons; thoſe who have ſought beauty have attended more to the fleſhy parts of the muſcles. His ſtyle of drapery is ſimply grand, in the extreme of perfection, and well worthy of being ſtudied. Even Pouſſin, who is ſaid to excel in it, is in his beſt works inferior. Raphael is more judicious and ſelect; Pouſſin more natural. Juſtice muſt allow that the former took the hint for this great ſtyle of drapery from M. Angelo. Raphael ſometimes reached the graceful, and but ſeldom the beautiful, and never exquiſitely. We have ſelected the works of the above artiſt, eſteeming them the firſt for expreſſion; but we ſhall find admirable traits of the ſame kind in thoſe of the Caracci, Domenichino, Pouſſin, &c. Some who have attempted the expreſſive ſtyle, imagining the whole merit lay in exceſs and violence, have writhed their figures into convulſions, when the occaſion would not require more exertion than would be neceſſary to take a pinch of ſnuff or raiſe a ſtraw; nay, they will not let them even ſleep in peace. Such bombaſtic ſtuff may amuſe the weak, as faſhion in art will pleaſe for a time even at the expence of truth; but the triumph will be tranſitory as a ſunbeam on a winter's day.

Beautiful Style

Requires that the objects be elegant, void of ſuperfluity, and ſoft in the execution. Perhaps the truly beautiful ſtyle muſt be ſought in the works of the ancients. The Apollo Belvidere approaches the ſublime, and forms, of its kind, a point of perfection: ſome of the Niobes exhibit exquiſite female beauty, but in the Venus de Medicis and Apollo we ſee it united with grace. It is certain that in the antique ſtatues we muſt ſeek the beauty of ſymmetry, and that we cannot ſtudy them too often to fix the impreſſion of their excellencies on our minds; for it is next to impoſſible but that every reconſideration muſt unfold new beauties. The true mode of ſtudy is to impreſs their beauties ſo ſtrongly on the imagination as never to be forgotten, and not to ſtand in need of their preſence as a pattern. Boys are too often put to draw after the living model before they have imbibed a proper notion of, or reliſh for, beautiful proportion. There is no danger of ſuch ſtudies injuring, as we are ſurrounded by fine examples in *chiaro-ſcuro* and colour;

and of the two, deciſion is more commendable than that ſlovenly manner which preſents the mere idea of a thing like a dream: the former diſplays knowledge, the latter ignorance. There is great difference in painting, between taking the ideas of natural things without giving them form, and that determined method ariſing from a poſitive knowledge. Guido's heads are beautiful; but his choice was often injudicious, many of his objects requiring ſtrong expreſſion, which he loſt for fear of deſtroying beauty. Albano's females are delicately beautiful; and we are ſurrounded by beauty in the portraits of Reynolds and others.

Graceful Style.

To form this ſtyle the motions of the figures ſhould be moderate, eaſy, agreeable, and unaccompanied by violence *. The antique ſtatues will aſſuredly afford the moſt perfect examples, becauſe, on a compariſon with the ancients, the moderns appear to have become a little affected, and too often to have ſought grace in difficult attitudes, with forced and conceited turns in their figures. There are few of the Greek ſtatues in which grace does not abound; for, as they ſought beauty in their works, they cultivated grace as its inſeparable companion. Very graceful are the Apollo and the Venus de Medicis; ſo are the Meleager and Hermaphrodite. The Hercules is alſo truly graceful and eaſy, as is the Antinoüs, &c. Raphael underſtood the grace of motion; but he had it leſs in the contours of his figures; and his dry manner of execution contributed much to deſtroy beauty. Corregio appears the moſt perfect modern, Parmegiano being ſometimes too forced, and bordering on affectation. Reynolds' female portraits appear to have been touched by the Graces themſelves. Among the works of our ſculptors, the females of Nollekens poſſeſs ſuch a combination of grace and beauty as the Greeks might have acknowledged for their own without a bluſh.

Florid Style.

This ſtyle muſt be ſought among the Venetians, alſo in Rubens, and thoſe Flemings who have followed him. Thoſe who have practiſed it have been content to pleaſe the eye by a brilliant diſplay of colour, contraſt in their groups, and oppoſition in light and ſhade. They appear to have admitted every deſcription of objects in their picture, provided they contributed to the buſtle or pleaſure of the whole. If this is not the moſt juſt ſtyle, experience teaches every one that it is the moſt popular, and perhaps we may add the moſt profitable.

The above maſters muſt not be confounded with thoſe who have practiſed a ſtyle ſufficiently eaſy, but who have been content with giving ſuch an idea of a thing in their works as would ſerve to diſtinguiſh one from another without regarding their perfection. At the head of this latter claſs ſtand P. Cortona and L. Giordano.

Natural Style.

This ſtyle is called natural, from the artiſts practiſing it wanting the power to improve on the original, or of chooſing the beſt of the kind. It is to be ſeen in the Dutch ſchool in the works of Rembrandt, G. Dow, Meris, young Teniers, &c. This ſchool has improved the aërial perſpective, and poſſeſſes great excellence of colour and *chiaro-ſcuro*, to which it has joined great truth, as far as a ſimple repreſentation would permit. It has excelled in what may be termed the mechanical part of the art; and thoſe who wiſh to ſeek after an elegant power of penciling will be highly gratified in the admirable works of Teniers, Cuyp, Berghem, &c.

As each of the above ſtyles has its peculiar beauties, we muſt cautiouſly guard againſt falling into the oppoſite extreme. For the ſublime is nearly allied to the extravagant; the expreſ-

* See the Eſſays on Beauty and Grace, in our Magazine for Sept. and Oct. 1802.

ſive may be eaſily rendered bombaſtic or pedantic; and the beautiful, ſmirking, or coquettiſh. The graceful, with the ignorant, may eaſily become the affected: perhaps there is but a ſlight partition between that affectation of grace in the works of Watteau, Bouché, and Le Moine, and the pure repreſentations of Corregio, or thoſe of Parmegiano. The florid may be miſtaken for the ſhowy and tawdry. This is moſt likely to happen from a cold lifeleſs imitation.

Works of genius are ever the reſult of feeling, to which we muſt be directed by ſpirit and judgment. A painter, a poet, or player, that imitates cloſely, will never excel. To be tamely alive in our works is not enough; ſpirit, vivacity, and vigour, are required. Whatever comes ſhort of this is but one remove from imbecility.

THE BRITISH MUSE.

VERSES on a beautiful MOUSE, tamed by a SCHOOLBOY; and remarkable for its Docility.

'TWAS on a day, foretold by fate,
A luckleſs mouſe, forgetful ſate,
And doz'd the morn away
Safe in the covert of a wall,
Which oft reſounded to the ball
Where little ſtudents play.

A ſylph, propitious, heard him ſnore;
Felt all the pangs affection bore,
And trembl'ed for his care.
(For mice have ſylphs, as well as men,
And Jove is juſt as fond of them—
For mice are ſleek and fair.)

In whiſp'ring voice, from all conceal'd,
Alone to fancy's ear reveal'd,
His guardian ſeem'd to ſay;
'Illuſtrious mouſe! beware of fate,
And take thy warning, e'er too late;
Important is to-day.'

'Whatever fortune may betide,
What inauſpicious fates provide,
I am not to declare:
Beware of treach'rous claw-arm'd cats;
Beware of poiſon, and of rats;
But moſt of traps beware.'

He ended, when the morning bell
Conven'd the ſcholars to their cell,
And 'woke the ſchool to day;
'Twas then, oh, mouſe, if fame be true,
The rouſing ſcholars rous'd up you,
And ſhook thy dream away.

Now all the day in joys he paſt,
Nor yet was fortune overcaſt,
But ſhone meridian light;
But while the rev'ling hours he ſpent,
The buſier ſylph, on fate intent,
Revol'd the future plight.

Now, ev'ning 'roſe; releas'd from care,
Exulting ſcholars triumph there,
And innocence is gay.
Now Phœbus, and the cook retire;
One ſeek the weſt, and one the fire,
Preparing wholeſome tea.

There was a boy, of junior fame,
The little king of ev'ry game,
The hero of their play.
High o'er his ſmall ſcholaſtic ſtate,
The innocent uſurper ſat,
And ſpread his infant ſway.

A cruel engine, form'd by fate
To ſcarcify the nibbling ſtate,
This ſov'reign ſcholar us'd.
The ſame, with wond'rous care and price,
More fond of toaſted cheeſe than mice,
A Welchman introduc'd.

The artful ſcholar this (to ſave
A jelly that his ſiſter gave)
Secreted in the houſe;
For policy inſpir'd his pate,
The gift of Jupiter and fate,
Conſpiring 'gainſt the mouſe.

Now in their down each ſcholar lay,
Forgot the trifling cares of day,
And ſunk to inſtant reſt.
'Twas innocence that made them light;
No anxious thoughts prolong'd the night,
Or tore their little breaſt.

But 'ah! how diff'rent was thy lot,
Poor luckleſs mouſe! by Jove forgot,
The bait attracts thee there!
Jove held his balance as it clos'd;
A luckleſs ſylph that interpos'd
Fell victim to the ſnare.

Thy ſleeky breaſt, and downy ſkin,
The whiſkers of thy little chin,
Can ſoften fate no more.
Ne'er ſhalt thou trace the yard again,
Nor ramble o'er th' adjoining plain
In freedom as before.

But now, beneath thy ſcholar's care,
Hence muſt thou breathe a cloſer air,
(So fate propoſes it.)

His breaſt thy downy priſon make,
You of his daily meals partake,
And ſhare the dainty bit.

Illuſtrious mouſe! if ever fate
In me exemplifies thy ſtate,
And ſlavery be mine,
Oh, may I bear thy bonds alone,
And ſuch a jailor be my own;
And ſuch a jail as thine.

ARBETHA WECKEY.

SONNET TO SLEEP.

COME, balmy ſleep, come, ſoothe my ſoul to reſt,
And ſhed oblivious poppies o'er my eyes;
With thy ſoft power relieve my troubled breaſt,
Alike thou 'rt welcome to the fool and wiſe.

Thy wand, ſweet Morpheus, with a touch can lull,
And huſh each anxious thought to calm repoſe;
Can make, at once, the trembling ſenſes dull,
And chaſe reflection from the keeneſt woes.

When meagre famine, and corroding care,
Thoſe twin tormentors of the human heart,
Make the ſunk eyeballs, like a maniac's ſtare,
Soothe them, oh, ſoothe them, with Lethean art.

May tranquil peace my aching eyelids ſhut,
And ſoft illuſions o'er my mind be thrown;
They give a bleſſing to the beggars's hut,
Which oft is wanting to a monarch's throne.

G.

ODE TO RELIGION.

[From Poems 'Lyrical and Miſcellaneous,' by the late Rev. H. Moore, of Liſkeard.]

FAIREST daughter of the ſky!
On whoſe majeſtic brow
Divine unutterable glories glow,
While round thy roſy lip, and placid eye,
Love and the ſmiling Graces every play,
Temp'ring the blaze of thy eternal day—
Religion, hail! Thou ſource of hallow'd fires,
Joys ever pure, and ſanctified deſires!

Beneath the brown-rob'd wood,
Where Contemplation ſits in muſing mood,
Sooth'd by the hollow gales, and falling flood,
What time the ſun to other realms is roll'd,
And Eve's bright tints of purple and of gold
Faint ſlowly from the weſtern ſkies away,
While Cynthia's milder face
Shoots thro' th' unfolding clouds a ſilver ray,
And o'er the landſcape ſheds a ſofter grace,
Far from the world's deluſive ſcene I fly
To woo thee from thy native ſphere,
To catch the beamings of thy heav'n-bright eye,
Thou pleaſing awful fair!

There oft methinks I hear the ſtreams along
The melody of thy melliſluous ſong,
Whoſe tuneful whiſperings ſuſpend the ſoul,
And ev'ry pow'r in pleas'd attention lull,
Like thoſe high airs of a ſuperior ſphere
Which thrill'd in Adam's fond delighted ear,
While favour'd yet with Innocence to rove
In Eden's bliſsful grove;
Liſt'ning, while the guardian Quire
To ſacred raptures touch'd the heav'nly lyre,
Where'er he trod entranc'd, above, around,
He heard the ſolemn, ſweet, ecſtatic ſound;
Now the bold notes in loftier meaſures play'd,
In ſoften'd tones now warbled thro' the ſhade,
And fill'd with melody the midnight vale;
Now languiſhing away
In gradual, ſlow decay,
Died on th' expiring gale!

O now be preſent, ſky-rob'd maid,
In thy divineſt ſmiles array'd!
Now let my boſom feel thy power,
And conſecrate this ſolemn hour,
When freed from buſy ſcenes, and noiſe,
I ſeek thy ſoul-reviving joys!
To outward ſhows averſe, of praiſes ſhy,
Thou veil'ſt thy beauties from the public eye;
Thy charms the Wiſe in calm retirement own,
Still lov'd, and valu'd more, the more they're known.
'Tis thine ſecure the fickle heart to guide,
And keep the paſſions ſtill on Reaſon's ſide,
To clear from error's miſt the mental ſight,
Refine our joys and ſanctify delight,
Eaſe the ſharp pangs of pain, our griefs aſſuage,
Embelliſh youth, and dignify our age,
To godlike excellence exalt mankind,
And ſtamp her Maker's image on the mind.

O bleſt, whoſe ſoul thy vivid beauties charm,
Thy aims ennoble, and thy raptures warm!
He taſtes of bliſs below,
Which wealth could cou'd never buy, nor grandeur know.
He is the ſmiling Saint's unruffled reſt,
His the pure flame, that burns the Seraph's breaſt.
For him meand'ring from the eternal throne
Heav'n's ever-living rills of pleaſure run:
For him ſhe opens all her ſecret bow'rs,
Brightens her ſkies, and culls unfading flow'rs.

When dire Ambition calls the world to arms,
And frantic Diſcord ſounds her loud alarms,
While ſwell'd from realm to realm, from ſhore to ſhore,
O'er half the globe her peals of horror roar,
And like a ſlumb'ring lion from his lair,
Arouſe the Fiend of war,
Their noiſe no more diſturbs his tranquil joy,
Than peeviſh infants ſtriving for a toy.
In vain the world's tumultuous billows roll
To ſhake his ſtedfaſt Soul,
Which in the breaſt enthron'd, erect, ſerene,
Defies the fury of the foaming main.
Bleſt Genii thus, who range the fields of day,
No wrecks of matter wound—unhurt they ſtray
Thro' ſpheres of fire—and borne ſecure on high,
While the rude whirlwinds ruſh around the ſky,
Hear the hoarſe thunders roar without amaze,
And ſport amid the living lightning's blaze.

Come then, propitious to my prayers inſpire
The godlike ſentiment, the gen'rous aim.
From thy bright altar's unextinguiſhed fire
Dart through my fervid breaſt the heav'nly flame,
To raiſe my pow'rs, my paſſions to refine,
'Till the droſs working by degrees away
Shall leave th' immortal ether pure, divine,
To riſe and mingle with its native day.
O ſtill thro' Life's pernicious ſnares,
And waſting toils, and pining cares,
Smooth the rough road, my griefs beguile,
And make e'en pain and anguiſh ſmile.
And when I tread thro' Death's dread gloom,
While Nature trembles o'er the tomb,
Bid radiant beams of mercy riſe,
And ſoften my expiring ſighs.

LOVE's TRIUMPH.

[From Poems by Nathaniel Bloomfield.]

Come, let us ſeek the woodland ſhade,
And leave this view of towns and towers:
Sweeter far the verdant mead,
And lonely dell's ſequeſter'd bowers.

Why does my love this walk prefer;
This hill, ſo near the public way?
Why this proſpect dear to her?
Where villas proud their pomp diſplay?

Ah! why does Mary ſometimes ſigh,
Surveying this magnific ſcene;
The ſeats of grandeur tow'ring high,
With rivers, groves, and lawns between?

On ſplendid cars, that ſmoothly move,
With high-born youths gay damſels ride!
By the encircling arm of love
Preſs'd to the wealthy lover's ſide.

Why turn to view their eaſy ſtate,
As the long glittering train moves by?
And when they reach the pompous gate,
Ah! why does youthful Mary ſigh?

Doth envy that fond boſom heave?
Repining at her humble lot—
Alas! does Mary long to leave
The lonely dale and lowly cot?

Pure and ſincere is Mary's love;
Words were ſuperfluous to tell;
A thouſand tenderneſſes prove
That Mary loves her Stephen well.

When liſt'ning to the ſtockdove's moan,
Far in the deep ſequeſter'd grove,
The bluſh that whiſper'd, 'We're alone,'
Sweetly confeſſed the power of love.

Exalted love concealment mocks,
This feign'd indifference does but prove
That was I lord of fields and flocks,
My Mary's lips would own her love.

Doth poverty create the fears
That o'er your love their ſhadows fling?
The ſilence of thoſe falling tears
Confeſſes all the truth I ſing.

O! Mary, let not empty ſhow,
Let not the pride of gaudy dreſs,
Thus cloud thy morn of life with woe,
And blight its future happineſs.

Truſt the monition Baldwin gave,
Our future bliſs its truth ſhall prove,
Life's cares the lovers who dare brave,
Shall find their rich reward in love.

Baldwin, the hoary-headed bard,
I ſtill conſult when cares annoy:
He own'd for me a fond regard;
And calls me ſtill his darling boy.

His mind is fraught with ſpoils of time;
He's wiſe and good, tho' known to few:
He gave me this advice in rhyme,
And here I'll read the ſong to you:—

'Though envious age affects to deem thee boy,
Loſe not one day, one hour, of proffer'd bliſs;
In youth graſp every unoffending joy,
And wing'd with rapture ſnatch the bridal kiſs.

Let not this chief of bleſſings be deferr'd,
'Till you your humble fortunes can improve;
None's poor but he, by ſordid fears deterr'd,
Who dares not claim the matchleſs wealth of love.

Virtue can make moſt rich thy little ſtore;
Virtue can make moſt bright thy lowly ſtate:
Murmur not then that virtuous thou art poor,
While proſperous vice can make men rich and great.

The bad man may, his every ſenſe to pleaſe,
Each ſoft indulging luxury employ:
The plenitude of elegance and eaſe
He may poſſeſs; but never can enjoy.

No—though his goods, and flocks, and herds abound;
His wided demeſne to fair profuſion groan;
Though proud his lofty manſion looks around,
On hills and fields, and foreſts all his own:
Tho' this may tempt thee, murmuring to complain,
With conſcience clear, and life void of offence,
"Verily, then, I've cleans'd my heart in vain;
In vain have waſh'd my hands in innocence."
Yet, could'ſt thou cloſely mark the envied man,
See how deſires ungovern'd mar his peace;
Or hadſt thou power his inwardmind to ſcan,
How ſoon in pity would thy envy ceaſe!
Envenom'd paſſions all his thoughts unhinge!
The ſlave of vice muſt thy compaſſion move;
If ſtill he burns with thirſt of dire revenge,
Lawleſs ambition or unhallow'd love.

'Mid gayeſt ſcenes he wears a gloomy frown:
Vain is the ſplendour that his dome adorns;
While he reclines on ſilky heaps of down,
His tortur'd mind is weltering on thorns.

To prove that man oppreſt with mental pain,
The goods of fortune have no power to pleaſe,
Even ſuicide has oft been known to ſtain
The downy couch of moſt luxurious eaſe.

The active life of labour gives no room
To that dull ſpleen the indolent endure;
Generous cares diſpel our mental gloom,
And induſtry is melancholy's cure.

Repine not then, that low thy lot is caſt;
Health gives to life or high or low its zeſt;
'Tis appetite that ſeaſons our repaſt,
And wearineſs ſtill finds the ſofteſt reſt.

For all thy bleſſings thankfulneſs to wake,
Think of leſs cultur'd lands, leſs peaceful times;
Our coarſeſt fare, when ſparingly we take,
'Tis luxury, compar'd with other climes.

Think of the poor Greenlander's diſmal caves,
Where thro' their long, long night they buried lie;
Or the more wretched lands where hapleſs ſlaves
Hopeleſsly toil beneath the fervid ſky.

In Britain,—bleſt with peace and competence,
Rich fortune's favours could impart no more:—
Heaven's bleſſings equal happineſs diſpenſe;
Believe my words, for I am old and poor.

Many who drudge in labours' roughеſt ways,
By whom life's ſimpleſt, lowlieſt walks are trod,
Happily live, to honour'd length of days,
Bleſſing kind nature, and kind nature's God.'

What think you, is ſage Baldwin right?
Should ſpring tide love endure delay?
And ſhall our bliſs be ſeal'd ere night?
Say, lovely Mary, ſoftly ſay?

Why ſtarts my love?—why riſe to go?
Will Mary then my ſuit deny?
Sweet is the ſmile that anſwers, No!
By heaven, there's rapture in her eye.'

THEATRE.

A NEW Comedy, called THE MARRIAGE PROMISE, written by Mr. Allingham, was performed, for the firſt time, at Drury-lane theatre, April 16.

DRAMATIS PERSONÆ.

Charles Merton, Mr. C. Kemble; Sidney, Mr. Dwyer; Tandem, Mr. Banniſter, jun.; Conſols, Mr. Dowton; George Howard, Mr. Pope; Farmer Woodland, Mr. Palmer; Policy, Mr. Hollingſworth; Jefferies, Mr. Powell.—Mrs. Howard, Mrs. Powell; Mrs. Harvey, Mrs. Sparks; Emma Harvey; Mrs. Jordan; Mary Woodland, miſs Mellon.

Bailiffs, Servants, &c.

The ſcene is laid in a village in England.

Upon the arrival of Charles Merton at his late father's manſion, to take poſſeſſion of his eſtate, with his travelling companion, Mr. Sidney, a daſhing young man of faſhion, he meets with Tandem, a whimſical character, who had acted as his father's ſteward, and from whoſe knavery and tricks many incidents ariſe. A plot is laid by Sidney and Tandem to make Merton drunk, Tandem having been invited, at Sidney's requeſt, to dine with them. Merton, in a ſtate of intoxication, inſults Mary, the daughter of farmer Woodland. After recovering from his drunkenneſs, he feels much remorſe for his conduct; and, to expiate his offence, determines to offer Mary his hand. For this purpoſe he writes to Woodland, and gives the letter for delivery to Tandem, who is diſtreſſed at finding his maſter in correſpondence with Woodland, whom he has previouſly ordered to be arreſted for debt, for having refuſed him his daughter.

Mrs. Harvey, a reduced gentlewoman, having retired with her daughter Emma to a cottage granted her by the late Mr. Merton, an intimate friend of her deceaſed huſband, captain Harvey, receives notice that her agent, who held the remnant of her fortune in truſt, has failed; and the leaſe of her cottage having expired at the time young Merton takes poſſeſſion, her daughter Emma reſolves to wait on him, to intercede for her mother. In this interview, Merton feels the intereſt of a lover, and is in deſpair when he reflects on the promiſe made to Mary Woodland. From this incident the play takes its title. To refer to another part of the plot—Conſols arrives in the village, with his clerk, Policy, to whom he declares that his immenſe wealth rather makes him miſerable than happy, and that he is reſolved to part with ſome of it, to relieve the unfortunate. He enters the cottage of George Howard, by whom he is kindly treated and relieved, Howard ſuppoſing him in diſtreſs. In the mother of Howard, Conſols finds a loſt daughter, who, having been privately married to the father of Merton, is involved in diſtreſs by his having neglected her and married again. From theſe circumſtances many intereſting ſituations ariſe. Merton becomes acquainted with his father's turpitude by means of a letter, ſuppoſed to have been written by his dying hand, in which he recommends Mrs. Howard and her ſon to his care. George Howard, incenſed at Merton's conduct to Mary Woodland, challenges him: they meet, but are prevented fighting by an old ſervant, who was in the ſecret, and who declares them to be brothers. Merton receives the hand of Emma Harvey, while Mary Woodland beſtows her's on George Howard, and thus the piece concludes.

The language of the play has the merit of claſſical elegance, and is admirably ſuited to the reſpective characters, while the wit and humour of the piece ſeem to ariſe ſolely from the occaſion without any intruſion upon the buſineſs of the ſcene. The author ſtrictly confines himſelf to the repreſentation of things as they exiſt in nature, without fictitious ſupport.

The following SONG was introduced in the ſecond Act, and ſung by Mrs. JORDAN in the Character of Emma. The Muſic by Mr. Kelly.

Young Colinette, a lovely maid,
Had ſhe been wiſe as ſhe was fair,
By Lubin had not been betray'd,
Who prais'd her ſhape and prais'd her air,
And ſtole her heart away—
Ah me—Ah me—well a-day.

By vows, as falſe as falſe cou'd be,
He ruin'd lovely Colinette,
And careleſs then away went he,
So left the maid to pine and fret,
And ſigh her life away—
Ah me—Ah me—well a-day.

IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT.

Continued from Page 231.

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Thurſday, March 24.

THE royal aſſent was given by commiſſion to forty public and private bills. Among the public bills were, the Prince of Wales' Annuity Bill, the Engliſh Militia Bill, and ſeveral Iriſh Revenue Bills.

Friday, March 25.

The royal aſſent was given, by commiſſion, to the Iriſh Poſtage Bill, the Expiring Laws Bill, and two private bills.

Lord PELHAM delivered a meſſage from his majeſty, to the ſame effect as that delivered to the commons, reſpecting ſir J. Saumarez—It was ordered to be taken into conſideration.

Monday, March 28.

The king's meſſage relative to ſir J. Saumarez being taken into conſideration,

Lord PELHAM moved an addreſs to his majeſty, thanking him for his communication, and aſſuring him of their lordſhip's aſſent to the ſum propoſed to be ſettled upon that gallant admiral.—The addreſs was carried *nem. dis.*

Monday, April 4.

The order of the day for going into a committee on the Militia Officer's Bill being read,

Lord ROMNEY roſe and argued againſt the principle of the bill. The preamble to all the acts, down to that of laſt ſeſſion, paſſed on the ſubject of the militia, contained an expreſs acknowledgment that it was eſſential to the conſtitution that that body ſhould be officered by men poſſeſſed of a landed qualification. The preſent bill was in direct oppoſition to this principle. It was a part of that ſyſtem by which government had broken down all the diſtinctions between the militia and the army. He was always aware that the unneceſſary extenſion of the militia, which took place a few years ago, would have this termination; and on that account it was that he uniformly expreſſed his opinion that it ſhould be kept at its old eſtabliſhment. The neceſſity, if a neceſſity actually exiſted for the preſent meaſure, aroſe out of the clauſe of the late bill, by which thirteen captains, inſtead of ten, were appointed to each battalion. To find that number of perſons properly qualified, in point of landed property, might certainly be difficult for a lord lieutenant, diſguſted as ſuch men muſt be, by the new regulations which were daily making with reſpect to the militia. With reſpect to himſelf he muſt declare, that rather than its character and conſequence ſhould be frittered down, as it had been by thoſe innovations, he would willingly give his ſupport to a bill for its total repeal.

The Marquis of TOWNSEND explained the principles on which he had originally propoſed the raiſing of the militia; and expreſſed his ſatisfaction, that whatever alterations had ſince taken place, thoſe principles, as far as a change of circumſtances had admitted, had always been kept in view.

The houſe then reſolved itſelf into a committee.

Lord RADNOR wiſhed to know whether, by the clauſe admitting the return of unqualified officers diſembodied at the peace, it was intended to give them the option of ſerving, before an application ſhould be made to qualified perſons.

Lord HOBART having given an anſwer in the affirmative, a diſcuſſion of conſiderable length took place, in the courſe of which, the clauſe and the general principle of the bill were oppoſed by lords Carnarvon, Romney, Radnor, and Grantley, and ſupported by the duke of Cumberland, the marquis of Sligo, and lord Reddeſdale, Weſtmoreland, Limerick, Bolton, Hobart and Pelham.

Wedneſday, April 6.

The Militia Officers' Bill being read a third time, lord Radnor propoſed a clauſe, by way of rider, to the effect of obliging lords lieutenant to offer ſuch captaincies as there ſhould not be found qualified perſons to ſupply, to field-officers, before having recourſe to unqualified perſons.

Lord HOBART moved that the houſe, at its riſing ſhould adjourn to Tueſday, the 19th inſtant—Agreed to.

Friday, April 22.

The royal aſſent was given by commiſſion to the Militia Officers' Bill, ſir J. Saumarez's Annuity Bill, American Commiſſioners' Bill, Four Million Loan Bill, and five private bills.

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Wednesday, March 23.

The MASTER of the ROLLS rose, in consequence of the notice he had given, to move for leave to bring in a bill for exempting Roman catholics from taking any oaths but that of allegiance. The learned gentleman prefaced his motion by an historical detail of the various statutes which had been enacted against the catholics, for the purpose of preserving pure and entire the holding of all situations in the country. Certain penalties were imposed by the acts of the 11th and 12th of William III, and two acts were passed in the reign of his present majesty, viz. in the 18th and 31st years, for the relief of the catholics. The act of the 18th of his majesty contained an abjuration of the person stiling himself Charles III, well known by the name of the pretender; but in the act of the 31st of the king, that abjuration was omitted, the pretender being dead. Through some overight, however, catholics in taking the oath in terms of the last act, found no relief from the act of the 18th of the king, as they were by it rendered incapable of inheriting or purchasing lands. It was then necessary that they should take the oath as directed by the act of the 18th; and many having neglected to do so, became liable to the acts of William. His object by the bill he intended to introduce was, that Roman catholics, having taken the oath directed by the 31st of the king, should not be under any restrictions of the act of the 18th. He concluded by moving for leave to bring in a bill for enabling Roman catholics, on subscribing the declaration contained in the 31st of the king, to be exempted from certain penalties contained in the acts 11 and 12 William the third.

The house went into a committee on the motion, which was agreed to.

Thursday, March 24.

Mr. ADDINGTON brought down a message from his majesty. He stated, that his majesty having taken into consideration the many services of sir James Saumarez, and particularly the alacrity with which he attacked a Spanish fleet, of superior force, in the Streights of Gibraltar, on the 12th of July 1801, wished that provision might be made by the house, for enabling his majesty to settle an annuity of 1200l. per annum on sir James Saumarez, during his life. On the motion of Mr. Addington, the message was ordered to be taken into consideration in a committee of supply to-morrow.

Friday, March 25.

The house resolved into a committee on his majesty's message relative to sir James Saumarez.

Mr. ADDINGTON said, he was sure that it could not be necessary for him to enter into any argument to induce the committee to agree to the motion he had to submit. The name of sir James Saumarez stood highly eminent and conspicuous in the annals of the naval glory of England. That were he to enter into a minute description of his atchievements, he must detail his feats in the war, terminated by the peace of 1783. During the last war he fought under earl Howe, on the glorious first of June; under lord St. Vincent, on the 14th of February; he shared the perils and glories of the battle off the Nile; and lastly, on the 12th of July, 1801, he attacked a fleet of French and Spanish vessels of superior force, in the roads of Gibraltar, which he defeated. Last summer he had returned from his command in the Mediterranean, and his majesty, being anxious to provide for sir James Saumarez, and his family, had recommended to the house to vote an annuity to maintain him in his rank. Mr. Addington concluded, by moving that 1200l. be granted to his majesty out of the consolidated fund, to enable his majesty to settle an annuity to that amount on sir James Saumarez, during the term of his natural life.—The resolution was agreed to, and the report was ordered to be received.

The house then went into a committee of ways and means.

Mr. ADDINGTON said, that it would be in the recollection of the house, that before the Christmas recess, he had given notice, that in the present session he should propose to vote 11,000,000l. of Exchequer bills, of these 5,000,000l. had already been granted, and he now should propose that 4,000,000l. more should be issued, for enabling his majesty to time the funding of those already issued. The resolution was agreed to, and the report was ordered to be received.

Tuesday, April 5.

Mr. ADDINGTON brought up a report of a survey of part of the Highlands of Scotland. The report was ordered to lie on the table.

Mr. ADDINGTON stated, that the report was made by a person who had undertaken the survey in the summer of 1801-2, at the desire of the lords of the treasury. The matter which it contained would be found of very singular importance. He

ſuggeſted various plans of local improvement highly neceſſary in that remote quarter of the iſland, and particularly pointed out the expediency of certain roads opening the communication with Fort William, and other parts of that diſtrict. This report would, he was well aſſured, be received by the houſe as a freſh proof of his majeſty's beneficence to his ſubjects, which was not confined to any part of the country or deſcription of his ſubjects.—He concluded by moving that the report be printed.—Ordered.

Wedneſday, April 6.

Sir WILLIAM SCOTT roſe for the purpoſe of moving for leave to bring in a bill protecting the clergy from actions of non-reſidence. The learned gentleman, at very great length, went into a detail of the cauſes of the original ſtatute of Henry VIII, and by hiſtorical deductions brought the narrative down to the preſent day. The meaſure he intended to propoſe, was preciſely the ſame with the bill he had introduced to the houſe in the laſt agonies of the laſt parliament; ſome parts of it were, however ſimplified and ſoftened down, and this was occaſioned by information he collected uponparticular points. Having ſtated that the bill did not extend to the Church of Scotland, he concluded by moving for leave tobring in a bill amending the laws relative to ſpiritual perſons holding farms, and enforcing the reſidence of the clergy. —Leave given.

A meſſage from the lords informed the houſe, that their lordſhips had agreed to the Southampton Port Improvement Bill, the St. Giles' Burial-ground Bill, the Woolwich Truſt Bill, the Roman Catholic Oath Bill, and to the Militia Officers' Bill, with ſeveral amendments.

Thurſday, April 7.

The SPEAKER ſtated, that the royal aſſent, by commiſſion, had been given, in the houſe of lords, to the Iriſh Militia Bill, Greenland Whale Fiſhery Bill, Surveyor General's Bill, the Royal Dublin Canal Bill, and to ſeveral private bills.

Mr. ADDINGTON then moved, that the houſe, at its riſing, do adjourn until next Tueſday ſe'nnight.—Agreed to.

Wedneſday, April 20.

Mr. H. BROWNE roſe, to move for leave to bring in a bill for more effectually preſerving the peace, and better ſecuring the Freedom of Election, in the town of Nottingham and County thereof.—The motion was agreed to.

Thurſday, April 21.

Mr. ADDINGTON moved that the order of the day for the houſe going into a committe upon ſo much of his majeſty's moſt gracious ſpeech as related to affording facility to mercantile tranſactions, be read.—The order having been read accordingly,

The houſe went into the committee.

Mr. ADDINGTON roſe.—As he had already ſtated, the object of the meaſure he meant to propoſe was to ſimplify, conſolidate, and amend the collection of the revenue. The principle upon which he founded this propoſition, was the ſame in effect with that which had been acted upon before, and which had given birth to the act of 1787. It would not be ſo comprehenſive in its detail as that act, becauſe that ſtatute had to provide for the collection of all the duties impoſed ſince king William, every one of which acts made proviſion for providing for the intereſt of the laws. Theſe acts, therefore, firſt eſtabliſhed what is called the conſolidated fund, which, after ſatisfying the demands of the private creditor, was applied in aid of the ſervice of the ſtate. In the preſent inſtance he ſhould ſuggeſt that all rates, cuſtoms, and duties contained in one hundred and ſeventy acts, be conſolidated. After this conſolidation ſhould have been effected, he ſhould propoſe that there ſhould be a fractional rate payable on certain duties, at the higheſt integral ſum. Several articles contained in the book of rates would be commuted from *ad valorem* to rated duties; while others at preſent paying rated duties would be converted into *ad valorem* rates.—He likewiſe meant to propoſe, for the purpoſe of ſecuring a degree of regularity in the entries, a ſmall duty on all articles imported duty free. Before, however, this general outline ſhould be acceded to, he wiſhed the houſe to be in full poſſeſſion of the ſchedule, as certainly differences of opinion might ariſe upon particular points, although he truſted none could be raiſed againſt the meaſures as a whole. Moſt articles at preſent imported to this country from India, excepting ſugar, would be charged at the ſame rate as articles imported from other countries. A preference was intended to be given to Weſt India produce, although not an invidious one. He wiſhed ſmuggling might be counteracted, and for that purpoſe propoſed a very high duty upon all articles liable to a contraband trade, which he hoped would effectually deſtroy that illicit traffic. The plan had been ſubmitted to the conſideration of the board of trade and the board of cuſtoms, and very little difference

of opinion upon its expediency had ariſen. Much labour and attention had been beſtowed in preparing the ſchedule; by acquieſcing with which, upon a future occaſion, the committee would be ſpared the trouble of agreeing to about 6000 different reſolutions. Should the bill to be founded upon the ſchedule paſs, he wiſhed to inform the committee, that immediately thereafter he meant to bring forward the ſubject of bonding and warehouſing goods, of which he had given notice before the Chriſtmas receſs. When he looked at the high ſituation the country held, in a commercial view, he was aſtoniſhed. He beheld her trade riſing from a capital unprecedented, from the greateſt perſonal integrity and confidence between man and man. This was the baſis of all true commercial greatneſs. He concluded by ſtating, that as he wiſhed to follow the ſame courſe with that adopted in 1787, he wiſhed the ſchedule to be printed, and that the chairman ſhould report progreſs, in order to the committee ſitting again to-morrow fe'nnight. He then moved, that the ſeveral duties now payable by the act of the 40th of the king, do ceaſe and determine, and that the following duties be paid in lieu thereof. This merely referred, as a matter of courſe, to the duties contained in the ſchedule, none of which were ſtated by the hon. gentleman.

Mr. BURDON profeſſed himſelf an advocate for the meaſure. He wiſhed, however, that ample time might be allowed for circulating the ſchedule.

General GASCOIGNE wiſhed that delay might take place, as, notwithſtanding what had been ſaid by the chancellor of the exchequer, relative to the information he had collected from the country, he could ſtate that the merchants of Liverpool had not come to any reſolution whatever. The hon. gentleman had ſtated, that a fractional rate was to be laid upon certain articles, and an integral ſum charged. Thus 63l. 15s. might be a fractional rate, while 65l. would be charged as the integral ſum. It was alſo inſinuated, that unleſs the houſe objected to tonnage duty, at the preſent moment, that it would be continued. He would, however, remark, that the ſenſe of commercial men at large was much againſt the continuation of that impoſt.

Mr. ADDINGTON ſaid, that the ſchedule had been in circulation for a month, and if the merchants of Liverpool had not made up their minds upon the ſubject, the fault lay with themſelves.

After a few words from Mr. Vanſittart, the chairman reported progreſs, and obtained leave for the committee to ſit again on Monday fe'nnight.

(To be continued.)

TRIAL OF CAPTAIN MACNAMARA.

ON Friday morning, April 22, captain Macnamara was removed from Blake's hotel, in Jermyn-ſtreet, in order to take his trial at the Old Bailey, on a charge of manſlaughter, occaſioned by a duel fought on the 6th of April, in which colonel Montgomery was killed.

At one o'clock the captain appeared in court, attended by a medical gentleman and a great number of reſpectable friends; and being unable to ſtand, a chair was provided for him at the bar. The clerk of arraigns read over the charge, which was founded on the coroner's inqueſt, of manſlaughter; and in which the captain was charged with firing off a piſtol, loaded with ball, which cauſed the death of colonel Robert Montgomery.

To this charge the captain pleaded Not Guilty.

Mr. Knapp opened the caſe for the proſecution, and entered into the circumſtances of the provocation in Hyde Park, and dwelt particularly on the uſe made by captain Macnamara of the word *arrogance*. In Piccadilly ſomething further paſſed, in which other perſons were concerned whoſe names he would not mention, as they were not now the object of accuſation. He then ſtated the progreſs and effect of the duel, and concluded by ſaying, that the proſecutor had no wiſh as to the event of the trial, but to acquit himſelf of the duty to his deceaſed relative and to the public. If, in conſequence of this proſecution, a ſtop or a check ſhould be put to ſuch fatal tranſactions, this proſecution would be attended with the beſt effects that had reſulted from any trial that had taken place before a jury of the country.

The firſt witneſs called was

William Sloane, eſq. who ſtated that he was in Hyde Park between four and five o'clock on Wedneſday the 6th of April, in company with his brother and colonel Montgomery; the latter of whom had a Newfoundland dog with him; captain Macnamara and three or four gentlemen

were riding at ſome little diſtance. When they came between the bridge and the bar, the colonel's dog was fighting with another, and he perceiving that his dog was worſted, jumped off his horſe to ſeparate them; when he had ſo done, he called out, "Whoſe dog is this?" By this time the captain had come up, and replied, "That's my dog." "Then," ſaid the colonel, "if you don't call your dog off, I'll knock him down." The captain aſked, how he could have the arrogance to ſay he would knock his dog down? To which the colonel replied, "I certainly ſhall if he falls on mine again." Much converſation of this kind paſſed between them, in which the captain ſeveral times repeated the word arrogance, as they proceeded all together toward Piccadilly; and at laſt ſaid, "I am captain Macnamara, of the royal navy." The colonel anſwered, "It is not my intention to quarrel with you, but if your dog attacks mine, I will moſt certainly knock him down." A great many words paſſed between them more than this witneſs diſtinctly heard, from his attention being called off by the gentlemen about him. At length, however, being come out of the Park, the parties ſeparated, the captain and his friends going a little way before. On coming to the corner of Bond-ſtreet, this witneſs left his brother and the colonel, but perceiving the captain and his party turn back, and follow them down St. James's-ſtreet, he did ſo too, until they came near the church in Jermyn-ſtreet, when he perceived captain Barry go from the captain to the colonel; but as what paſſed could not be in the hearing of the captain, he was not permitted to proceed in this part of his evidence.

On his croſs-examination by Mr. Erſkine, he ſaid, there was much warmth in the colonel's manner; it was not ſuch as one gentleman would addreſs another in; and added to his former account of the converſation, that, at the early part of it, the colonel ſaid to the captain, "If you have been offended, I am colonel Montgomery, and you may know where to find me."

Stephen Sloane, eſq. gave a ſimilar account of the commencement of this affair, and depoſed, that when the colonel ſaid he would knock the other down if he fell upon his dog again, the captain replied, "If you knock my dog down, you muſt knock me down afterward;" to which the colonel anſwered, "This is not a proper place to diſcuſs a diſpute; my name is colonel Montgomery, and you may know where to find me." "Mine," rejoined the captain, "is Macnamara, of the navy." In their way out of the Park, the colonel ſaid that he had not intended to give the captain any offence by ſaying he would knock the dog down; to which he replied, that he was not offended, but that if he had intended to offend him, he would reſent it with as much zeal, or ſomething to that effect, as any man in the kingdom.

Lord Burgherſt met the parties in the Park, about twenty yards before they came to the bar, and as he came up to them he heard the colonel ſay, "I ſaid I would knock your dog down if he attacked mine again." The captain replied, "Thoſe were not words to uſe to a gentleman." "Then," ſaid the colonel, "if you feel yourſelf injured, you know where to find me. Do you feel yourſelf injured?" "No," was the captain's anſwer; "but if you do intend to inſult me, you will find I can reſent an affront as ſoon as any man in England." The colonel again repeated, that it had not been his intention, but if he felt it ſo, he knew where to find him. The reſt of his lordſhip's teſtimony was a ſimilar account to that given by the other witneſſes.

Charles Smith, eſq. was alſo preſent at the time of the diſpute, and agreed in general with the teſtimony which had been given. This gentleman ſaid, that when the colonel made uſe of the expreſſion, that he would knock the dog down if he attacked his dog again, the captain replied, "If you do knock him down you muſt take the conſequence, or knock me down too." On which the colonel ſaid, "Why did you not call your dog off?" "Becauſe," returned the captain, "I did not chooſe it; I'll not be dictated to by you or any man." "Then I repeat to you," anſwered the colonel, "that you ſhall be welcome to know where to find me; as a gentleman you ſhould have called your dog off." "No," anſwered the captain, "I choſe to let him fight, nor will I be dictated to by any man, and I ought to know now where to find you for that which you have already ſaid."—Some gentlemen then got between them and this witneſs, and he heard no more of what paſſed.

Thomas Latch, a ſervant of Mr. Dean, a ſtable-keeper in Bond-ſtreet, gave an account of his being ſent with a chaiſe to James-ſtreet; that captain Barry came to the chaiſe in a hackney coach, and bid the witneſs follow the coach, which he did to the corner of Bennet-ſtreet, where it ſtopped,

and captain Barry left the coach, and, taking a caſe with him, got into the chaiſe, telling the witneſs to drive as faſt as he could to No. 8, Dover-ſtreet. Here captain Barry got out, went into the houſe, and returned in about five minutes with Mr. Heaviſide, and another gentleman whom he did not know. They all three got into the chaiſe, and Mr. Heaviſide ordered him to drive to Chalk farm. When they arrived there, captain Barry got out of the chaiſe, and walked up the field with a gentleman who had but one arm. Soon after this a hackney coach came up, out of which a gentleman got, as did Mr. Heaviſide and the other gentleman from the chaiſe: they went toward captain Barry and the other gentleman, and walked away together. This witneſs then went into the houſe to get ſome beer, and ſaw nothing further of what paſſed, until about twenty minutes after, when one of the gentlemen was brought down the hill wounded. Mr. Heaviſide and the other two gentlemen he had taken to Chalk-farm, got into another chaiſe, belonging to the Three Kings, which came there after him, and drove away.

Daniel Farrer ſaid, a ſervant came to his maſter's, who keeps the Three Kings, in Piccadilly, and wanted a chaiſe and four, but there being no other horſes at home than one pair, which he had juſt come in with, thoſe were put to; the ſervant got into the chaiſe, and ordered him to drive to Chalk-farm. When he came there, he found a chaiſe belonging to Mr. Dean, a hackney coach, and ſeveral gentlemen going up the hill. When they got into the field, he ſaw them divide, and two of them ſtand oppoſite each other with piſtols. They fired, and ſeeing colonel Montgomery fall, he ran to them. When he got up the hill, Mr. Heaviſide was applying ſome lint to the colonel's wound, when one of the gentlemen came to him, and ſaid that the captain was alſo wounded. His chaiſe was taken as far as it could be up the hill, into which the captain and his friends got, and he drove them to Blake's hotel, in Jermyn-ſtreet, after having aſſiſted in taking the colonel into Chalk-farm.

James Harding, who reſides in St. James's-ſtreet, chanced to be walking about at Chalk-farm when theſe gentlemen came. They aſcended Primroſe-hill, and he, out of curioſity, followed them. He ſtopped at about 50 yards diſtance, whence he obſerved them preparing piſtols, one of which they diſcharged as if to try if it was clean. He then obſerved them to ſeparate, and in a few minutes the colonel and captain fired at each other, and ſo immediately together, that he heard but one report. The colonel fell; on which the witneſs went toward them, and when he came up the colonel was lying on the ground. Mr. Heaviſide opened his waiſtcoat, and put ſome lint to the wound, which was on the right ſide. Mr. Heaviſide being then informed that the captain was alſo wounded, went to his aſſiſtance. The witneſs aided in getting the colonel, whoſe eyes were then fixed, to Chalk-farm, where he ſhortly afterward ſaw him a corpſe.

Lord Burgherſt was called to prove that the corpſe he ſaw at Chalk-farm was the body of the ſame Robert Montgomery whom he had ſeen in Hyde Park.

Here the evidence on behalf of the proſecution cloſed.

The learned judge (Heath) then informed captain Macnamara that the time was arrived when he might urge any thing in his defence.

Captain Macnamara requeſted the indulgence of the court, in a very low tone of voice, while he read from a paper what he had to offer in his defence, which was inſtantly complied with. The captain then proceeded as follows:—

'Gentlemen of the Jury,

'I appear before you with the conſolation that my character has already been delivered, by the verdict of a grand jury, from the ſhocking imputation of murder, and that although the evidence againſt me was laid before them, without any explanation or evidence of the ſenſations which brought me into my preſent unhappy ſituation, they made their own impreſſion; and no charge of criminal homicide was found againſt me. I was delivered at once from the whole effect of the indictment. I therefore now ſtand before you upon the inquiſition only, taken before the coroner, upon the view of the body, under circumſtances extremely affecting to the minds of thoſe who were to deliberate on the tranſaction, and without the opportunity, which the benignity of the law affords me, at this moment, of repelling that inference of even ſudden reſentment againſt the deceaſed, which is the foundation of this inqueſt of manſlaughter.

'The origin of the difference, as you ſee in the evidence, was inſignificant. The heat of two perſons, each defending an animal under his protection, was natural, and could not have led to any ſerious conſequences. It was not the deceaſed's defending his own dog, or his threatening to deſtroy mine, that led to the fatal cataſtrophe;

it was the defiance alone, which moſt unhappily accompanied what was ſaid: words receive their interpretation from the avowed intention of the ſpeaker. The offence was forced upon me by the declaration that he invited me to be offended, and challenged me to vindicate the offence by calling upon him for ſatisfaction.—"If you are offended with what has paſſed, you know where to find me." Theſe words, unfortunately repeated and reiterated, have over and over again been conſidered by criminal courts of juſtice as ſufficient to ſupport an indictment for a challenge. The judgments of courts are founded upon the univerſal underſtandings and feelings of mankind, and common candour muſt admit that an officer, however deſirous to avoid a quarrel, cannot refuſe to underſtand what even the grave judges of the law muſt interpret as a provocation and a defiance. I declare, therefore, moſt ſolemnly, that I went into the field from no reſentment againſt the deceaſed: nothing, indeed, but inſanity could have led me to expoſe my own life to ſuch imminent peril, under the impulſe of paſſion, from ſo inadequate a cauſe as the evidence before you exhibits, when ſeparated from the defiance which was the fatal ſource of miſchief, and I could well have overlooked that too, if the world, in its preſent ſtate, could have overlooked it alſo. I went into the field, therefore, with no determination or deſire to take the life of my opponent, or to expoſe my own. I went there in hopes of receiving ſome ſoothing ſatisfaction for what would otherwiſe have expoſed me in the general feelings and opinions of the world. The deceaſed was a man of popular manners, as I have heard, and with a very general acquaintance. I, on the other hand, was in a manner a ſtranger in this great town, having been devoted from my infancy to the duties of my profeſſion in diſtant ſeas. If, under theſe circumſtances, the words which the deceaſed intended to be offenſive, and which he repeatedly invited to be reſented, had been paſſed by and ſubmitted to, they would have paſſed from mouth to mouth, have been even exaggerated at every repetition, and my honour muſt have been loſt.

'Gentlemen, I am a captain in the Britiſh navy. My character you can only hear from others; but to maintain my character in that ſtation, I muſt be reſpected. When called upon to lead others into honorable danger, I muſt not be ſuppoſed to be a man who had ſought ſafety by ſubmitting to what cuſtom has taught others to conſider as a diſgrace. I am not preſuming to urge any thing againſt the laws of God, or of this land. I know that, in the eye of religion and reaſon, obedience to the law, though againſt the general feelings of the world, is the firſt duty, and ought to be the rule of action: but, in putting a conſtruction upon my motives, ſo as to aſcertain the quality of my actions, you will make allowances for my ſituation. It is impoſſible to define in terms the proper feelings of a gentleman, but their exiſtence has ſupported this happy country many ages, and ſhe might periſh if they were loſt.

'Gentlemen, I will detain you no longer: I will bring before you many honorable perſons who will ſpeak what they know of me in my profeſſion, and in private life; which will the better enable you to judge whether what I have offered in my defence may ſafely be received by you as truth.—Gentlemen, I ſubmit myſelf entirely to your judgment.—I hope to obtain my liberty, through your verdict; and to employ it with honour in defence of the liberties of my country."

Mr. Erſkine and Mr. Garrow, as counſel for captain Macnamara, then proceeded to call the witneſſes on his behalf.

Lord Hood was called to ſpeak to the general character of the captain. His lordſhip ſtated, that he had known captain Macnamara for eight or ten years, and had the good fortune to promote him in the year 1794, when ſerving under his command. He never heard any thing to contradict the opinion which he had formed of his good temper, moderation, and gentleman like conduct on all occaſions.

Admiral lord Nelſon had known captain Macnamara for upward of nine years. He knew him to be a brave and diſtinguiſhed officer. Much as he reſpected his profeſſional merits, he could ſpeak with equal confidence as to his private character. He was a cheerful, lively, inoffending man, and though he would not ſubmit to inſult from any one, yet he believed him to be the laſt man that would give offence. He had been intimately acquainted with him for the long time they had ſerved together; and, ſaid his lordſhip, as I ſtand now before God and my country, I believe him to be incapable of inſulting either man, woman, or child.

Admiral lord Holham had known captain Macnamara ſince 1794. While his lordſhip commanded in the Mediterranean, the captain ſerved under him; and as far as he had ſeen, and he had many opportunities of witneſſing his conduct, he was an excellent officer, of ſocial manners, inof-

fending, conciliatory, and, in fact, every thing he could wiſh to find in a companion.

Lord Minto (formerly commiſſioner at Toulon, and afterward viceroy of Corſica) had been acquainted with captain Macnamara ſince 1793. He ſtated him to be a good officer in his public character; and as a companion, lively, cheerful, and good humoured, never inclined to quarrel, but, on the contrary, ſtudious to avoid quarrels.

Admiral ſir Hyde Parker gave ſimilar teſtimony,

Sir T. Trowbridge, general Churchill, captain G. Martin, Mr. M. Philips, captain Towry, captain Liddiard, captain Waller, captain Graham, captain Moore, captain Fellows, Mr. C. Wright, and Dr. Bayne, alſo ſpoke in the higheſt terms of the character and diſpoſition of captain Macnamara, whom they had known for a ſeries of years, and whom they all concurred in repreſenting as of a moſt peaceable and amiable diſpoſition.

Mr. juſtice Heath then addreſſed the jury. He obſerved, that captain Macnamara ſtood charged on the coroner's inqueſt with the crime of manſlaughter, by firing a loaded piſtol at colonel Montgomery, which cauſed his death; their province in the preſent caſe was very limited, the charge had not only been proved by the witneſſes, but even acknowledged by the captain himſelf. The law, very wiſely for the ſake of ſociety, was a ſtranger to thoſe nice rules of honour which in modern times actuated the conduct of gentlemen; and in caſe the grand jury had found a bill for wilful murder, a more ſerious charge would of courſe have been preferred againſt the priſoner. Evidence had been called to character, which, to be ſure, went to fix that of the captain as high as it was poſſible for character to place a man in ſociety; but, however high the character of a perſon accuſed, before the time of committing the crime, though it might weigh with the court, the jury could not attend to it; they were bound to act according to the evidence in ſupport of the charge, which was not denied by the priſoner himſelf.

The jury retired for about a quarter of an hour, and on their return pronounced a verdict of—*Not Guilty.*

Captain Macnamara immediately bowed in the moſt reſpectful manner to the court and jury, and, leaning on the arms of two friends, was aſſiſted from the bar.

HISTORICAL CHRONICLE.

April 4.

ON Tueſday laſt the remains of the poet Klopſtock were ſolemnly interred at Ottenſen, a village adjoining Altona, in the grave of his firſt wife, who was buried there 30 years ago. The funeral was attended by the ſenate of Hamburgh and many of the foreign miniſters and moſt diſtinguiſhed inhabitants of that city, in upward of 100 carriages. A ſelection of ſacred muſic, taken from the poet's own works, and compoſed by the greateſt maſters, was performed on the occaſion: the vocal parts were entirely executed by upward of 80 young ladies, of the firſt families of Hamburgh and Altona. Innumerable crowds of ſpectators ſhowed the intereſt they took in this laſt tribute to this moſt diſtinguiſhed ornament of their country. The weather was highly favourable, and the ſun, which the deceaſed has ſung in immortal ſtrains, ſhone ſerene and cheerful on his coffin.

April 5.

A method of rendering ſea water capable of waſhing linen, has lately been pointed out by Dr. Mitchell of New York, and, we think, ought to be made as public as poſſible for the ſake of our ſailors: Drop into ſea-water a ſolution of ſoda or pot-aſh, and it becomes milky in conſequence of the decompoſition of the earthy ſalts and the precipitation of the earths. This addition renders it ſoft and capable of waſhing. Its milkineſs does no injury, and need not therefore be minded.

The Engliſh ſettlement at Sierra Leone continues to be much annoyed by the Nova Scotia ſettlers and the Maroons, without being in a ſtate to reſiſt the attacks that are occaſionally made upon it. A ſtatement to this effect was made at the meeting of the company on Thurſday, when ſome of the members propoſed to abandon the ſettlement altogether; but the propoſition was rejected, and the directors were empowered to uſe their own diſcretion for furthering the great object of the proprietors, and by an application to parliament, to procure ſuch aſſiſtance as may be neceſſary for maintaining the ſettlement.—Ten thouſand pounds were granted laſt year, and the like ſum is annually expected, from the deſire which government has expreſſed to lend its aid.

APRIL 8.

Lord Hutchinſon was on Tueſday admitted and enrolled into the freedom of the city of London, and preſented by the chamberlain with a ſword of 100 guineas value, voted by the corporation for his eminent ſervices.

Laſt week a court martial was held at Chelſea college upon two officers in a diſtinguiſhed corps of infantry in his majeſty's ſervice; the caſe is thus ſtated:—While the regiment lay at Chatham, ſome time ſince, one of thoſe officers declining to drink more wine at the meſs after dinner, was aſked by the other the reaſon? 'To tell you the truth (replied the former) I have *an aſſignation with your wife to-night*, and as a man of honour I am reſolved to keep it!' Enſign —— endeavoured to paſs this off as a joke: but the other aſſuring him that he was in earneſt, received a glaſs of wine in his face, and a manual ſkirmiſh enſued, until ſeparated by their brother officers. The commanding officer arriving two days after, and having heard the circumſtances of this extraordinary caſe, with the addition that no further ſtep had been taken by either party, put them under arreſt, and reported their conduct to the commander in chief, who ordered them to be tried by a court martial, the report thereof was laid before the king, and received the royal ſanction. Captain Maclellan, (brother to lord Kircudbright) who was the agreſſor, is diſmiſſed his majeſty's ſervice, and enſign Lloyd is ſuſpended and deprived of his pay for ſix months.

APRIL 9.

A machine has been invented for ſweeping chimnies; it conſiſts of a number of wooden tubes, of about 30 inches long, and three quarters of an inch in diameter, which run on a rope or cord, and faſten into one another to any length. To the upper tube is faſtened a ſquare bruſh, the block of which is about ſix inches long by three wide, and from it, on all ſides, iſſues heath, broom, or any other ſtiff but flexible ſubſtance, large enough to fill the breadth of the chimney. The tubes are about 30 inches long, of courſe the joints between each will bend to the moſt crooked chimney, and its coming down muſt clear out the corners, ledges, &c. which are ſometimes found in chimnies. In the courſe of the preſent month a perſon has, in the preſence of many reſpectable witneſſes, effectually cleanſed ſeveral lofty and crooked chimnies. A chimney 50 feet high may be ſwept in ſix or eight minutes, and with much leſs dirt than happens by the common mode.

Thurſday being Maundy Thurſday, in commemoration of the Paſſover, his majeſty's bounty to as many poor men and women as the king is years old, was diſtributed in Whitehall chapel, by the rev. the dean of Weſtminſter, ſub-almoner to his majeſty. The rev. prelate delivered a ſhort explicit exordium on the royal beneficence. The poor were, as uſual, regaled with a platter of fiſh, a ratio of beef, and four threepenny loaves; after which, in the afternoon, after evening ſervice was performed by the rev. Dr. Moor, and anthem by the choriſters of the chapel royal, the rev. Dr. Vincent, in the body of the chapel, gave to every applicant who had a right to the benefaction, cloth to each man for a coat and ſhirt, and a pair of ſhoes and ſtockings: to each woman, cloth for a ſhift, and camblet for a gown, with two little leather bags, one containing a one-pound note, the other as many ſilver penny-pieces as the king is years old. After which each perſon had given to them a ſmall wooden bowl of wine to drink the king's health.

APRIL 11.

The lords commiſſioners of the admiralty have ordered the following ſhips to be commiſſioned without delay, viz.—San Joſeph, 112 guns; Ville de Paris, 110; Britannia, 100; Royal Sovereign, 100; Prince 98; Windſor Caſtle, 98; to each of which ſhips, reſpectively, ſeveral lieutenants have been appointed.

APRIL 12.

On Friday laſt a melancholy accident took place in Mount-ſtreet, Groſvenor-ſquare. Mrs. Adderly, a lady of the higheſt reſpectability, whoſe huſband holds a ſituation of the firſt rank in the ſervice of the Eaſt India company, in the act of feeding a ſquirrel, opened the door of its cage, when the animal, eager to obtain his food, ran out and bit her ſo violently by the finger, that ſhe was compelled by the pain to utter a loud cry, and ſuddenly riſe up; at the ſame time ſhe unfortunately let the candle fall on her clothes, which were immediately in flames. In this ſituation ſhe ſcreamed out, ran down ſtairs, and threw herſelf in the paſſage, at the parlour door. The whole family ruſhed to afford aſſiſtance, and by rolling her on the carpet, and uſing every means in their power, they endeavoured to extinguiſh the fire. Unhappily every attempt made by her friends was ineffectual, for ſhe was

ſo dreadfully burned that ſhe expired in a few hours.

APRIL 14.

Weymouth, April 11. A terrible affair happened on Saturday ſe'nnight. A preſs-gang from a frigate lying in Portland-roads, conſiſting of the captain and his lieutenant, with the lieutenant of marines, and twenty-ſeven marines, and about as many ſailors, came on ſhore at Portland Caſtle, and proceeded to the firſt village called Cheſelton. They impreſſed Henry Wiggot and Richard Way, without any interruption whatever. The people of the iſland took the alarm, and fled to the village of Eaſon, which is ſituate about the centre of the iſland, where the people made a ſtand at the pond. The gang came up, and the captain took a man by the collar. The man pulled back, on which the captain fired his piſtol; at which ſignal the lieutenant of marines ordered his men to fire, which being done, three men fell dead, being all ſhot through the head, viz —Richard Flan, aged 42 years; Alexander Andrews, 47 years; and William Lang, 26 years; all married men, two of them quarry men, and one a blackſmith. One man was ſhot through the thigh, and a young woman in the back; the ball is ſtill in her body, and but little hopes are entertained of her recovery. Lang, the blackſmith, was at his ſhop door, and there fell dead. An inquiſition has been held, and a verdict given of wilful murder againſt the whole, leaving the law to diſcriminate the ringleaders.

APRIL 16.

On Wedneſday a ballot was taken at the Eaſt India houſe for the election of ſix directors, to ſerve for four years, in the room of the undermentioned gentlemen, who go out by rotation, viz.—Mr. alderman Le Meſurier, ſir Francis Baring, ſir H. Inglis, ſir Thomas Metcalf, John Manſhip, eſq. G. W. Thelluſon, eſq.

At ſix o'clock, the glaſſes were finally cloſed, and delivered to the ſcrutineers, who, not till after four o'clock on Thurſday morning, reported the numbers to be:

R. C. Plowden, eſq. -	1528
Charles Mills, eſq. -	1404
Abraham Robarts, eſq.	1367
Simon Fraſer, eſq. -	1187
Thomas Parry, eſq. -	1006
John Huddleſton, eſq. -	997
John Inglis, eſq. -	815
George Tatem, eſq. -	776
Thomas Reid, eſq. -	675
John Bebb, eſq. -	506

Whereupon the firſt ſix were declared duly elected.

The number who ballotted was greater than ever before known, amounting to 1760.

On Thurſday a court of directors was held, when the ſix directors elected on Wedneſday took the uſual oaths and their ſeat in the direction.—Jacob Boſanquet, eſq. was choſen chairman, and John Roberts, eſq. deputy chairman of the Eaſt India company for the year enſuing.

APRIL 18.

Union Hall.—William Wortley depoſed, that on Friday morning about eleven o'clock, as he was coming up Tooley-ſtreet, where he had been in the diſcharge of his duty, he ſaw ſeveral perſons ſtanding near the corner of the Bridge-yard, who, from their appearance, he took to be a preſs-gang. Seeing they had ſtopped a man whom he heard them aſk for his protection, he ſtopped for a minute, to ſee how it would end. A man of the gang came up to him and ſaid, 'What buſineſs have you here?' The witneſs replied, 'I certainly have as much right here as you.' He was then aſked, if he had ever been at ſea. He replied he had been two or three times to Graveſend for pleaſure, but no further.—Juſt upon this, the priſoner in cuſtody, who acted as the officer of the gang, conſiſting of nine men, came up, and the man who had been ſpeaking to the witneſs, ſaid, 'Here is a volunteer.' This Wottley denied, telling him he was a police officer. This did not ſatisfy the other, for he ſeized him by the collar, and ſaid, 'You are a volunteer and ſhall go along with us.' The witneſs then putting his hand in his coat pocket to pull out his book, and produce his warrants of appointment, one as a police officer, and the other on the impreſs ſervice; the priſoner without further ceremony, pulled his cutlaſs from under his coat, and gave Wortley ſo ſevere a cut on the head, through his hat, that he had nearly bled to death before the wound was dreſſed. Before he became quite inſenſible, he requeſted that he might be taken to ſome neighbouring ſurgeon's, to have his wound dreſſed; but this was refuſed. The men then under the direction of the priſoner dragged him to Mill-ſtairs, laid him in their boat, (for he could not ſit up) and took him on board the Tender, where the ſurgeon dreſſed his wound. Several perſons depoſed to the ſame effect. The priſoner is a preſs-maſter, who is employed under the reſpectable lieutenant, who has the

charge of the impreſs ſervice, but had not any warrant. The magiſtrates, after expreſſing themſelves with becoming indignation at his conduct, committed the priſoner for trial, as well as one of the men who aſſiſted him.

APRIL 21.

Yeſterday the ſeſſion commenced at the Old Bailey before the judges Heath and Thompſon, the recorder, &c.

APRIL 22.

Yeſterday the recorder made a report to his majeſty of the priſoners under ſentence of death in Newgate, when Joſeph Jemmett and Michael Healy were ordered for execution on Wedneſday the 27th inſt.

APRIL 23.

On Thurſday, the lord-mayor held a court of common-council at Guildhall, at which fifteen aldermen, and a great number of commoners were preſent. The court proceeded to the election of comptroller, in the room of Philip Wyatt Crowther, eſq. deceaſed, when Joſeph Buſhnan, eſq. was unanimouſly elected by a ſhow of hands, and in a very handſome manner thanked the court for the honour done him, and reſigned the office of city ſolicitor. The court then appointed a ward committee to aſcertained the duties and emoluments of that office, and to report their opinion thereon. The court elected Mr. Thomas Piper, city maſon, in the room of Daniel Pinder, eſq. reſigned; and Mr. Samuel Elliott, city painter, in the room of Mr. John Simpſon, deceaſed.

APRIL 26.

On Saturday morning diſpatches were received at the admiralty, from admiral ſir Roger Curtis, dated the Cape of Good Hope, February 22.—They were brought by the Penguin ſloop of war, which arrived at Portſmouth on Friday, from the Cape, after a paſſage of two months, and two days. She brings accounts of the arrival of the Concorde frigate, captain Wood, at the Cape, with orders for its evacuation. It was accordingly ſurrendered to the Dutch two days before the Penguin left it, on the 21ſt of February. The St. Fiorenzo frigate, captain Bingham, had arrived at the Cape ſome time previous to the Concorde, with duplicates of the orders that were ſent by the Imogine, to retain the place. On the 20th of Februry, a proclamation was iſſued by general Dundas, abſolving all the inhabitants of the colony from their oaths of allegiance to his Britannic majeſty.

MARRIAGES.

LORD Montgomery, eldeſt ſon of the earl of Eglingtoun, to lady Mary Montgomery.

Captain Edward Brenton, of the navy, to miſs Cox, daughter of the late general Thomas Cox.

Captain James Dick, of the navy, to miſs Auguſta Goodrich, ſecond daughter of Bartlett Goodrich, eſq. of Saling Grove, Eſſex.

Lambton Eſte, eſq. to miſs Smyth, daughter of the late ſir Robert Smyth, bart.

Sir John Leſter, to miſs Ruſſell.

John Leach, eſq. to miſs Julia Ruſh, ſecond daughter of ſir William Beaumaurice Ruſh.

Lancelot Haſlope, eſq. of America-ſquare, to miſs Harriet Stock, ſecond daughter of Thomas Stock, eſq. Highbury-place, Iſlington.

Sir Charles Hamilton, bart. to miſs Drummond, only daughter of the late George Drummond, eſq. banker of Charing-croſs.

Major Maxwell, eldeſt ſon of ſir William Maxwell, bart. to miſs Catharine Fordyce.

DEATHS.

COUNTESS dowager of Darnley.

Hon. Everard Arundell, count of the ſacred Roman empire, aged 82.

Miſs Siddons, eldeſt daughter of Mrs. Siddons, of Drury-lane theatre.

Right hon. ſir William Hamilton, K. B.

Counteſs dowager of Chatham, aged 83.

Lady Frances Williams Wynne, aged 86.

Rev. John Randall, of New Brentford.

Janet Gaul, of Kincardine, aged 105.

Chriſtian Wallace, of Durham, aged 105.

Mrs. Hobbs, of Little Wilbraham, Cambridgeſhire, aged 104.

Mrs. Hudſon, wife of Sol. Hudſon, eſq. at Cheriſey, in the ſixty-fifth year of her age.

Rev. Dr. Layard, dean of Briſtol.

Earl of Dumfries, aged 77.

Philip Wyatt Crowther, eſq. city-comptroller.

Hon. Mrs. Parker, wife of colonel Parker.

Admiral ſir Thomas Rich, bart.

Right hon. John lord Henniker.

Rev. Edward Healy, of Pattington,

Henry Trenchard Goodenough, aged 86.

Mr. James Aikin, late of Drury-lane theatre.

PROMOTIONS.

JAMES Duberley, eſq. of Gainſhall, Huntingdonſhire—knight.

Francis Searle, eſq. of Kingſton-upon-Hull—knight.

John Dumareſq, eſq.—knight.

BANKRUPTS. From the GAZETTE.

MARCH 29.

P. NORTON, Whitechurch, Salop, innholder.

F. Beſtow, Ruſſia-row, Milk-ſtreet, hoſier.

T. Biſhop, Little Eaſt cheap, carpenter.

J. N. Barkly, Tower-royal, Budge-row, merchant.

D. Powney the younger, of Sherborne, Dorſetſhire, victualler.

E. Brook, Wakefield, Yorkſhire, money-ſcrivener.

APRIL 2.

I. Bourgeois, Billiter-ſquare, merchant.

S. Sheppard, Marlborough-ſtreet, Carnaby-market, victualler.

S. Greenwood, Newman-ſtreet, coach-maker.

W. Young, of Kingſton-upon-Hull, maltſter.

W. Turnbull, Fenchurch-ſtreet, dealer.

G. Tanner, Briſtol, hardwareman.

T. Arnold, Canterbury, cheeſemonger.

APRIL 5.

J. Bell, Norwich, liquor-merchant.

J. Bateman, Whitechapel, hardwareman.

F. Keymer, Covent-garden, ſurgeon.

J. B. Lomnitz, and W. Riſſon, Fenchurch-ſtreet, merchants.

F. Witney, otherwiſe Nicholas, Woodmancote, Glouceſterſhire, currier.

G. Billett, Borough, linen-draper.

C. Dunne, Durweſton-ſtreet, St. Mary-le-bone, ſurgeon.

T. Dow, and A. Dow, Liverpool, merchants.

W. Cadwell, Maidſtone, upholſterer.

M. E. Moſt, Old Bethlem, merchant.

R. Early, Chelmsford, coal-merchant.

H. Mitchell, Liverpool, builder.

J. B. Davallon, Laurence Pountney-lane, Cannon-ſtreet, merchant.

APRIL 9

H. Aveſon, and S. Aveſon, Manchester, corn-dealers.

R. Anderſon, Guildford-ſtreet, merchant.

J. Glover, Great Lever-works, Lancaſhire, oil of vitriol-manufacturer.

H. Smith, Blackfriar's-road, coach-maker.

J. Green, Liverpool, woollen-draper.

N. Calvert, Lancaſter, merchant.

E. M'Connell, Liverpool, linen-merchant.

T. Dearing, Wood-ſtreet, Cheapſide, victualler.

J. Cooke, Barnes, Surry, dealer.

F. Wilſon, Great Clacton, Eſſex, linen-draper.

APRIL 12.

T. J. Weſtbrook, Nelſon-Terrace, City-road, builder.

J. Myles, Cuſtod, Cheſhire, cornfactor.

W. Brown, Lincoln, ſadler.

W. Beaumont, Shrewſbury, draper.

APRIL 16.

J. Rawſtorne, Pontefract, in Yorkſhire, merchant.

W. Walker the younger, Kingſton-upon Hull, merchant.

T. M. Slade, Old Bond-ſtreet, picture-dealer.

R. Halſted, Worſthorn, Lancaſhire, calico-manufacturer.

APRIL 19.

J. Huſtler, Weſton Colville, in Cambridge, farmer.

W. Dawſon, Liverpool, merchant.

APRIL 23.

J. M. Waller, and M. Waller, Hightown, Yorkſhire, merchants.

H. Thurſton, Winchcomb, Glouceſterſhire, grocer.

W. H. Hitchener, Bird-in-court, in Cheapſide, warehouſeman.

D. Gwynne, Frith-ſtreet, Soho, taylor.

W. Every, New Sarum, in Wiltſhire, ſhopkeeper.

R. Chapman, Old Bethlem, ſtraw-hat-manufacturer.

J. Curtis, Oxford, wine-merchant.

T. Stawell, Halberton, Devon, dealer.

R. Treadgold, Milland, Southampton, dealer.

NEW PUBLICATIONS.

PICTET's Travels in England, Scotland, and Ireland, 8vo, 8s.

Lambe's Reſearches into the Properties of Spring Water, 8vo, 4s.

Weſton's Poems, 12mo, 4s.

Baker's Picturesque Guide through South Wales, 3 vol. 4to, 4l 4s.

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Chalmers' Remarks on the late War in St. Domingo, 2s 6d.

AVERAGE PRICES of CORN,

April 16, 1803.

By the Winchester Quarter of 8 Bushels.

Inland Counties.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.	
	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.	s.	d.
Middlesex	57	4	36	0	24	2	24	1
Surry	59	4	34	0	24	3	22	4
Hertford	53	4	35	6	24	8	21	4
Bedford	50	1	31	2	23	1	20	5
Huntingdon	49	2	——		20	10	17	0
Northampton	52	4	29	6	21	0	17	6
Rutland	54	0	——		22	0	18	0
Leicester	55	2	——		22	11	18	7
Nottingham	62	4	36	0	26	8	20	19
Derby	63	4	——		27	0	20	10
Stafford	61	5	——		26	1	20	5
Salop	58	2	38	8	25	6	20	6
Hereford	51	7	32	0	24	2	21	8
Worcester	54	5	32	0	24	7	23	7
Warwick	59	4	——		25	0	20	10
Wilts	55	4	——		24	6	20	6
Berks	56	10	——		22	6	22	6
Oxford	54	5	——		21	4	20	2
Bucks	51	0	——		22	6	21	9
Brecon	53	10	32	0	24	10	16	0
Montgomery	56	0	——		22	5	17	0
Radnor	53	10	——		24	0	19	9

Maritime Counties.

Essex	56	6	33	6	22	8	25	0
Kent	54	0	——		24	9	21	9
Suffex	51	4	——		24	6	20	10
Suffolk	53	9	32	0	21	6	19	2
Cambridge	47	11	33	4	19	7	14	11
Norfolk	53	2	34	5	20	8	18	9
Lincoln	53	6	32	1	23	6	16	6
York	54	8	36	5	24	2	16	6
Durham	57	4	——		28	0	19	10
Northumberland	51	3	40	0	31	1	18	4
Cumberland	69	10	50	4	27	5	23	10
Westmorland	69	6	50	8	32	8	43	3
Lancaster	63	0	——		29	11	21	7
Chester	55	3	——		25	8	18	2
Flint	——		——		30	1	——	
Denbigh	61	10	——		29	0	20	0
Anglesea	——		——		24	0	14	0
Carnarvon	60	0	42	0	25	4	16	0
Merioneth	63	6	48	0	32	0	22	8
Cardigan	62	0	——		18	0	12	2
Pembroke	49	3	——		20	5	13	4
Carmarthen	56	0	——		23	0	13	8
Glamorgan	54	2	——		22	11	18	3
Gloucester	57	2	——		23	5	22	2
Somerset	56	2	——		24	4	18	10
Monmouth	56	9	——		24	1	——	
Devon	61	1	——		22	4	18	11
Cornwall	59	6	——		22	2	19	3
Dorset	56	9	——		22	7	19	10
Hants	53	11	——		22	6	20	11

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	56	5	36	7	24	1	19	5

April 27—Peck Loaf 3s 0d.

Meteorological Journal, March 1803.

D.	H.	Baro.	T. out	T. in	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c. Rain 0,48
1	7	30,12	50	53	61	5	WSW 2	: fine
	2	30,11	55,5	55	59	4	W 2	. more cloudy
2	7	29,93	49,5	54	59	4	WSW 2	
	2	29,75	53	55	57	4	W 3	. drizzly eve. gentle rain: fine
3	7	29,50	36,5	50,5	56	5	N 3	. fine: little ſmall hail
	2	29,63	40	50	52	3	N 2	. little ſnow. cloudy eve: little ſnow
4	7	29,90	34,5	47	55	5	N 1	. fine
	2	30,02	40,5	47	53	2	N 2	. ſhower of ſmall hail. foggy eve. cloudleſs
5	7	30,08	31,5	43	53	2	N 0	hazy. very thick upward. fine
	2	30 10	36	42	49	2	SW 1	hazy. cloudleſs eve
6	7	30,13	32	42,5	57	1	S 0	hazy. little foggy and cloudy
	2	30,17	40	43	52	h	S 0	
7	7	30,20	32,5	42	55	h	NNE 1	. more wind
	2	30,24	37,5	42	51	h	NNE 3	: more wind
8	7	30,23	34	40,5	52	5	NE 4	. fine but hazy
F	2	30,24	40	43	47	h	ENE 3	not cloudy: more wind. leſs wind and little
9	7	30,18	32,5	40,5	56	5	ENE 2	. little fleet: fine [ſnow
	2	30,20	37,5	41	54	2	E 3	. leſs wind. cloudy night
10	7	30,15	32,5	36	53	h	NE 2	
	2	30,19	35,5	41,5	53	h	NE 1	. fine night at times: ſnow. fine
11	7	30,23	34	42	55	3	N 2	. frequent ſhowers of ſnow
	2	30,33	35,5	42	56	2	N 3	. frequent ſhowers of ſnow
12	7	30,47	27,5	39	55	1	N 1	: little ſnow
	2	30,53	36,5	41	53	3	N 1	. little ſnow. ſhower of hail
13	7	30,55	27	39	55	1	N 1	
	2	30,45	40	41	53	2	W 1	. cloudy night: little rain
14	7	29,81	39,5	42,5	59	4	W 1	. fine: cloudy and hazy
	2	29,24	40	46,5	55	5	W 1	hazy: little wet
15	7	29,89	45	48	61	h	WSW 1	continual gentle rain
	2	29,72	50	50,5	63	5	WSW 1	gentle rain. fair eve. fine
16	7	29,99	37,5	47	58	3	NNW 1	hazy. thick upward: fine
	2	30,04	43	46,5	54	2	N 1	hazy. little foggy. fine night
17	7	29,97	38	45	58	5	SSW 1	
	2	29,98	44,5	46,5	59	5	SW 2	. fine
18	7	30,17	45,5	48,5	61	2	SW 1	hazy. more cloudy
	2	30,23	52	51	62	4	WSW 2	hazy. fine night
19	7	30,30	48	50,5	61	5	WSW 1	. more wind
	2	30,32	51,5	51,5	61	5	SSW 3	. leſs cloudy. fine eve
20	7	30,20	47,5	50,5	61	4	SW 2	
	2	30,26	53	52,5	62	h	SW 1	. wind E and much gentle rain
21	7	30,34	45	50	65	h	E 1	drizzly. fine
	2	30,32	57,5	55	62	2	ESE 1	hazy: little rain
22	7	30,28	44	50	69	f	E 1	. fine
	2	30,22	56	55	54	1	E 1	hazy
23	7	30,22	45	51,5	60	2	E 1	foggy. fine
N	2	30,28	60	57	52	2	SSW 1	
24	7	30,37	44,5	52	60	0	WSW 1	hazy. more hazy
	2	30,33	59,5	57,5	55	h	E 1	not cloudy. brighter eve
25	7	30,19	45	52	60	1	E 1	little foggy. more cloudy
	2	30,17	57,5	57	58	3	E 1	hazy. wind ESE and clear eve
26	7	30,20	46,5	52,5	59	2	ESE 1	. foggy. fine
	2	30,24	62	58	50	2	ESE 1	
27	7	30,32	46	54,5	59	1	NE 1	
	2	30,30	61,5	59	59	1	E 2	
28	7	30,22	42,5	52	55	f	E 1	not cloudy
	2	30,18	55,5	55,5	55	h	E 1	not cloudy. cloudleſs eve
29	7	30,13	47	53	60	2	N 1	little foggy
	2	30,04	60	56,5	51	3	WNW 1	hazy
30	7	30,18	46,5	52,5	56	3	NNW 1	. thick upward. fine
	2	30,19	55,5	55	49	2	W 1	
31	7	30,24	45	52,5	55	0	WSW 1	
	2	30,24	63	57	47	0	WSW 2	

PRICES of STOCKS, from MARCH 30 to APRIL 27, 1803, both inclusive.

By ANTHONY CLARKE, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. Anns.	5 per Ct. Ann. 1797	Navy 5 per Ct.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C.	Imperial Ann.	Exc. Bills 3½d p. day	Exc. Bills 3d per day	English Lot. Tic.
30	175	shut.	63½ 61¼			98			202	61 ⅜		8s dif.		
31	shut.		62¾ 61¼			97			202	61 ½		7		
1			63 62⅛			97 ¼			202	61 ⅝	11	8		
2			63½ 64							63	11 ¼	8		
4			63⅜ 61⅞			97				62 ¼	11 ¼	6		
5			62½ 61¾			96			204			6		
6			62 63			97				61 ¼				
7			62⅛ 62¾			97			204	shut.	11 ¼	2		
8														
9			62¾ ⅝			97 ¾			204		shut.	par		
11														
12														
13			62½ ⅜			98			203					
14			63⅝ 64⅜			99			205					
15			63⅜ 64⅜			99 ¼			205 ¾					
16			64⅛ ⅜			99								
18			64½ ⅜			100								
19			64⅝ 66⅜			101								
20			66⅞ 65¾			100								
21			66⅞ 65½			100								
22	173 ¾	66 ¾	67⅞ ⅛			101			210 ½					
23	168	64	65 63¾	81 ⅛	98 ⅛	99			205					
25	169 ½	64 ¼	65⅛ 64⅞	82	99 ⅛	100								
26	169 ½	65	65⅛ 66	82	99 ¼	100 ¼	19 ⅛		207 ¾					
27	170 ¼	64 ⅞	65¼ ⅞	82 ⅛	99 ½	101	19 ⅜	4	207 ½					

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the higheſt and loweſt Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the higheſt Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a ſixteenth of the higheſt Price. In the different Funds that are ſhut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.

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